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ABSTRACT

A group of 40 education professionals, mainly from Asia and Africa, attended a seminar in Hamburg in December 1974 to consider curriculum development emphasizing lifelong education and adapted to local needs. The majority of participants were professionals involved in national curriculum development programs and with UNESCO curriculum projects. The document presents background material regarding the seminar and a discussion of the three major topics on which the seminar was based, examining problems the participants faced from country to country. Lifelong Education--Meaning and Implications, examines the ideas of lifelong education and its implications for educational practices in Asian and African societies. Basic Education and Its Curriculum discusses the features, functions, and content included in a basic stage of education in terms of the lifelong learning process. Directions of Change presents four categories of strategies to be adopted in the perspective of the countries and institutions represented at the seminar: (1) diffusion, (2) research, (3) development projects, and (4) limited changes. Twenty concept characteristics for lifelong education, identified by R. H. Dave; an extract from another UNESCO document entitled The Basic Cycle of Study; brief descriptions of international developments in lifelong education; and a seminar participant list are appended. (LH)

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LIFELONG EDUCATION, SCHOOLS AND CURRICULA IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

REPORT OF AN INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR

HAMBURG, 9-13 December 1974

Organised by the Unesco Institute for Education in cooperation with
the German Foundation for International Development and UNESCO

by H. W. R. Hawes

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
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LIFELONG EDUCATION, SCHOOLS AND CURRICULA IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

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1. Lifelong Education and School Curriculum by R. H. Dave
   (also available in French)

2. Lifelong Education and the School. Abstracts and Bibliography.
   L'Education permanente et l'ecole. Extraits et bibliographie.
   prepared by R. H. Dave and N. Stiemerling

3. Reflections on Lifelong Education and the School
   edited by R. H. Dave

4. Lifelong Education, Schools and Curricula in Developing Countries by H. W. R. Hawes

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- B. The Basic Cycle of Study
- C. Towards Lifelong Education: Some New Developments Mentioned in the Report
- D. List of Participants

Brief Bibliography

FOREWORD

In December 1974, a group of 40 educationists, including 28 concerned with the content of school education in 17 countries of Asia and Africa met for a five day seminar in Hamburg. The meeting was unusual in several respects. It was not designed for scholars, decision makers, administrators or teachers, but mainly for professionals involved in national curriculum development programmes, who are located at a nodal point between these groups of educational workers. Most of the institutions represented were actively involved in major UNESCO projects on curriculum work and therefore their international advisors were also present.

The seminar was not intended merely as an exchange of ideas and experiences, nor for the purpose of producing recommendations, but as a workshop where the participants, in cooperation with colleagues in similar positions, could consider lines of action leading to the gradual introduction of the idea of lifelong learning into the educational system. Thus the programme introduced an articulated and comprehensive approach to the educational process in terms of goals, length, participating agents, forms of realisation, conditioning factors etc., which could assist in appraising, reconsidering and reforming school education.

The seminar was not an isolated event but formed part of the ongoing diffusion programme initiated by UNESCO and supported by the research work of the Unesco Institute for Education. This diffusion programme aims at the clarification of the meaning of lifelong education, the identification of the operational implications of such a conception for existing educational services and the development of materials which will contribute to its implementation.

The seminar did not confine itself to plenary sessions supported by lectures or by a large number of working papers but concentrated on discussion by small working groups and of individual contributions by national participants. The wealth of experiences shared, ideas generated and actions taken proved of great value to organisers and participants alike. It soon became clear that lifelong education was not an exclusive privilege of developed countries and that relevant initiatives conditioned by national needs were already implemented in most of the participating countries, either on a national or more resctricted scale. It was felt that the basic educational problems of developing countries could be better solved through more imaginative and flexible services, adaptation to local features and recognition of educational opportunities and influences already available and operating outside the school system. It appeared that important changes in these directions had been attempted in the past decades, but very often wider perspectives were lacking. The concept of lifelong education was accepted as an integrated approach to isolated problems in terms of educational space, time and mode.

The seminar did not produce any ready made solutions, but did initiate systematic thinking towards long term solutions by key national agencies in the field of curriculum. It also contributed towards developing an informal communication network between institutions from different countries, sharing similar interests and activities. It is the purpose of this report to present these and other outcomes of the seminar. It is hoped that the ideas expressed and the suggestions for action included may interest educationists in developing countries as well as elsewhere and may also contribute to a further clarification of the idea of lifelong education.

The report does not reproduce the chronological sequence of the contributions and discussions, but has been organised around three major inter-related topics which formed the backbone of the seminar, i.e., the ideas of lifelong education and its implications for educational practice, the features, functions and content of a basic stage of education in the context of the lifelong learning process, and the strategies to be adopted. These topics are contained in chapters 2, 3 and 4.

The UIE was privileged to benefit from the generous cooperation of Mr. H. Hawes from the University of London Institute of Education, both during the seminar and in the preparation of this report. He combines professional expertise on curriculum matters with a considerable knowledge about the potential and limitations of the developing world. His report does justice to the abstract principles contained in the idea of lifelong education, while recognising the existing problems and conditions found in many parts of the world.

Finally, a word of appreciation to the UNESCO Secretariat in Paris as well as to the German Foundation for International Development, for their professional, logistic and financial support which made this seminar possible.

M. Dino Carelli
Director, Unesco Institute for Education

1 ABOUT THE SEMINAR

Who Came and Why

This report records a week's meeting of educationists from Asia and Africa held in Hamburg in December 1974 and organised by the Unesco Institute of Education in cooperation with the German Foundation for International Development and UNESCO to consider curriculum development in the perspective of lifelong education.

Since 1972 the Institute has been concentrating its efforts towards trying to clarify the idea of lifelong education and analysing its implications for the organisation of schools and upon the planning and provision of what is taught and learnt in them. Hence a large number of interrelated activities have been undertaken. These have included *theoretical studies* to clarify the concept of lifelong education and to analyse their relevance in the light of different aspects of educational theory, also *development projects* to design and try out new approaches in widely different educational contexts. Initially, development projects have been mounted on evaluation and on the training of teachers. Two series of *case studies* have also been planned; one on specific educational practices which are relevant to the idea of lifelong education and another on comprehensive reforms influenced by the idea. Finally there are programmes to help in the *diffusion* of these ideas and to get them talked about so that the concepts themselves may gain in clarity and power as a result of refinement and redefinition by more minds from different educational backgrounds. This seminar forms part of the last area of work and represents one of the most important diffusion activities undertaken by the Institute. It is perhaps the first time that many of these ideas have been examined critically by such a diverse and experienced group of educationists from developing countries.

The seminar did not follow the traditional conference pattern. Few prepared papers were presented and none formally read. Instead a considerable volume of information was collected by questionnaire from participants in the months preceding the seminar, about their institutions and about the patterns and policies of curriculum development in their countries. This was synthesised and provided as background material together with interim findings of an exploratory study on lifelong education and school curriculum already undertaken and published by the Institute.[1] Using all this material as a background to their discussions, it was intended that seminar members should look closely at the ideas of lifelong education and at the attempts by the Institute to refine them, that they should consider their application in the perspective of society, schools and their curricula in the countries represented, focusing particularly on the basic stage of education and, finally, that they should consider what practical steps might be taken towards better understanding and possible preliminary action by the institutions represented and in the countries concerned.

Parallel to the process of considering and refining the ideas developed in Paris and Hamburg was the process, equally important, of sharing the problems, the plans, the policies, the successes and the difficulties experienced by the countries represented, thus achieving some further progress towards a deeper and wider understanding of the concept and its application. It was further hoped that as a result of follow-up activities both after the seminar and as a result of publication of its report, even more people would be set talking and thinking both within the countries represented and outside them. The interest shown by participants themselves and the importance accorded by them to this process of widening the debate is reflected in Chapter 4 of this report.

Seventeen countries were represented in the seminar and, although some UNESCO advisers attended to support national delegates, the majority of participants consisted of nationals whose task it was to shape and interpret policy and who would remain in the system to follow it through, to reap benefits or take the consequences. The calibre of participants may well have indicated the interest and importance which the idea of lifelong education has generated. In practically every case, heads of institutions and departments came themselves and the quality of discussions benefited very greatly.

The responsibility for coordinating curriculum varies from country to country, consquently the role and work of the delegates and their institutions varied widely. The majority were directly concerned with the planning and development of school curricula either in curriculum development centres, such as those in Ghana or Zambia, or in ministry units or divisions responsible for curriculum policy, as in Indonesia or Afghanistan. But other interests were represented: heads of University Departments of Education, from Kuwait and Malaysia and of an Ecole Normale from Senegal; the director of a research institute from the Ivory Coast and of a ministry's Research Division in Saudi

Arabia; the Director of the newly created Mauritius Institute of Education and the Vice-Chancellor of Pakistan's new People's Open University.

Such Great Differences

Certain criteria were applied in selecting countries and institutions represented in the seminar. Participants were drawn from Asia and Africa and especially from countries where UNESCO had forged particular working links in respect of curriculum planning and development. All countries represented could also be described as "developing" as a result of lack of either financial and/or human resources.

The term "developing countries", however, has been used sparingly in this report as it was in all the literature which was distributed concerning the seminar. This is because it can so easily lead to two dangerous misconceptions. The first is the belief that only developing countries are developing, the second that most problems in developing countries are capable of common solutions. As the seminar proceeded, the differences between countries represented were highlighted again and again and it may be worthwhile to emphasize some of them, since it indicates that while the main principles of lifelong education may be generally acceptable to all nations, the way in which these are interpreted can and must vary dramatically in practice.

There were *differences in the scale of economic and human resources*. Pakistan has a large population and a low GNP, many children out of school but an adequate supply of teachers. Kuwait, by contrast, has a high GNP and could provide schools and equip them, but she is desperately short of trained manpower.

There are *differences in the composition and homogeneity of national societies*. Every country in the seminar presented its own unique patterns and problems. Afghanistan is criss-crossed with mountains and has major difficulties in physical communication between different areas. Zambia and Cameroon have many different language groups. Malaysia is the meeting ground for three great cultures and their religions. Little Fiji has three major racial groups. Saudi Arabia has only one, and one religion but, by contrast, a potentially divisive social structure ... and so the list continues.

Closely linked are *contrasts of culture*. Between nations and within them there may be a wide difference in the degree to which social and religious values welcome change or stress the importance of a life where traditional norms are observed and respected.

Political systems represent a further variable. Countries with a committed socialist philosophy may present different patterns to those where individual enterprise is more highly prized and rewarded.

Significant, too, is the *degree of urbanization* affecting, as it does, the individual's links with society and his expectations from it as well as the extent to which the various social groups from the family upwards are important in the social framework. In this respect, societies such as Indonesia or Iraq will differ greatly from Ghana or Uganda.

But nothing varies more greatly than the *pattern and provision of education*. Percentages of children in primary schools vary from 20% of the relevant age group to situations where statistics record over 100%, because children of different ages are all taking advantages of newly created opportunities at the same time. Statistics of wastage differ widely, so does the extent and standard to which teachers are trained. Structures vary too. In some countries, all education services are controlled by one ministry. In others, like Kenya, boards have been set up to coordinate different interests. Elsewhere, as in Algeria, new departments and institutions are being created to meet the challenges of alternative provision and patterns. Yet in many nations the system of control remains diverse and uncoordinated.

Such differences between societies and the kind of education they provide assume particular significance when we look at them in the wider context of education for living, for once education becomes more closely linked with the life and the expectation of the community, to national and social values, to the solution of immediate problems within the resources available, then the expectation that common curricula or common patterns of education are applicable to common problems in "developing countries" becomes even more unjustifiable than it has been in the past.

Common Problems

Yet common problems do exist, for the education crisis is worldwide and certain of these assume particular significance in new nations facing, at the same time, tasks of political and economic development. Countries represented in the seminar shared such problems and also shared doubts as to whether traditional patterns of education provided the most effective means of dealing with them. Thus members of the seminar accepted the opportunity to take yet another look at these problems, this time from a new educational perspective, in the hope that they might thus seem just a little more capable of solution.

Naturally any identification of such areas of concern is bound to be somewhat arbitrary but the following could certainly be included:

1) One set of problems relates to the achievement of a greater measure of social and political unity within society and, consequently, of finding means to break down barriers and increase opportunities for individuals or groups to benefit from social and educational opportunities which may be available to them. As already mentioned, the strength and importance of these barriers varies between societies and within them. There are barriers between groups and classes within societies as a result of birth, occupation, language, race and religion. There are barriers between generations, between townsmen and countrymen, between the schooled and the unschooled, between those who can read and those who cannot. Too frequently current education creates and reinforces divisions, breeding arrogance. Possibly a new perspective might help to reverse the process.
2) Then there is the problem of reconciling "quality" with the demands of educational expansion. Quantitative targets have been set and policies announced in UNESCO conferences in Karachi,[2] in Addis Ababa[3] and subsequently reaffirmed or amended. Several countries represented in the seminar, such as Kenya, Malaysia and Cameroon, have recently launched programmes of universal primary education. Others have set high targets to increase percentage enrolments at the first level. Elsewhere, where universal primary education is already a reality, policies have been announced for expansion of post-primary education. But all this expansion is to be set against a back-

ground of rising population, rising costs and shortages of trained manpower. The situation is further complicated by serious differences of opinion on what is meant by "quality". To accept it as meaning scholastic achievement as judged by the existing education system is clearly unacceptable, for skill in the acquisition, ordering and the re-capitulation of encyclopaedic knowledge has limited value in a fast changing world. Nor is the criterion of promoting economic efficiency in itself sufficient, for increasingly we realise that the individual must acquire a degree of stability and self-sufficiency to be able to survive the mounting pressure upon him, that both instrumental and intrinsic aspects of education must be identified in the context of a world where the values of materialism are increasingly being questioned.[4]

Could a new perspective help nations to find their way towards providing better education for more people within current resources? Could it help them towards a more satisfactory definition of quality than that currently accepted by schools, politicians and parents?

3) Closely linked to the last issue are the twin problems of how to make education more efficient and how to make it more relevant. The problem of efficiency has a number of aspects. One major concern is that of "wastage" in education. The conventional terminology used here is significant for it implies that those who have "dropped out" of the educational system before completing a stage (and in some of the countries represented well over half of the children at primary level do just that) have "wasted" their time. Would a new perspective on education help to ensure that fewer learners failed to reach the desired

end and that those who "dropped out" were not "wasted"?

Other aspects of efficiency relate to the best use of teachers and other human resources, of buildings and instructional materials as well as to the proper organisation of time. Nobody questions the need to reduce the quite exceptional inefficiency which inherited systems exhibit but in many cases we still have to decide what criteria we should apply to measure increase in efficiency.

4) We agree, for instance, that our curricula should be made more "relevant" but this term requires definition, for what is relevant in the context of society as it is now, may later turn out to be irrelevant to the insistent demands of change. Thus we have to seek some form of balance between the needs of the "now" we know and the future we can only imperfectly predict together with a flexibility to be able to face changes which we cannot yet foresee. At worst our current educational systems are irrelevant both to the "now" and to the future. At best they are imperfectly adapted to the demands of change. Would a new viewpoint help to clarify the criteria by which we may judge such relevance and efficiency?

5) But more concern about problems is not enough, nor is the drafting of plans and policies to alleviate them, for these plans have to be transformed into reality by systems working under pressures from political policies and demands for expansion in the face of economic and human limitations. In these circumstances when tomorrow's decisions always have to be made today and tomorrow's crises averted the night before, there is

often little opportunity to think of radical alternatives for the future. It is as if a vast and overloaded machine had continually to be kept running with never a chance to change gear. At the same time those who wish to achieve change must do so in the face of conservatism from parents, employers and, possibly most of all from the teaching profession itself. Moreover communication between the various agents in the educational process is often weak, so new ideas spread fitfully and unevenly.

Traditional means of effecting changes are often unable to meet these challenges because they usually involve replacing one "package" with another. Or if change is attempted, the gap between plans and practice may turn out to be very alarming. Many current curriculum changes exist largely on paper and in many instances, what is hopefully heralded as widespread innovation in reports, exists only in a very small corner of educational systems. It may be, therefore, that a new and more flexible perspective of education, placing emphasis on the individual's capacity to respond rather than the government's duty to provide, might prove a useful way of narrowing the gaps between plans and reality. Similarly attention may need to be focused on ascertaining suitable "entry points" from which innovation may proceed gradually.

Other great problems faced by nations represented in the seminar included high levels of adult illiteracy and marked differences between the educational level of women and girls and that of male members of the society; while behind these educational problems, and dwarfing them, lay the need for education systems to respond to the great issues which affect the very future of mankind: food supply, population control, the conservation of world resources and the need for peace and cooperation to achieve all these. Against these stormy clouds many details of the current educational landscape look particularly bizarre and the need to take a fresh look at what we do in the light of new values becomes not merely a matter of importance but a matter of survival.

This determination to look again at old problems was characteristic of the whole conference and there was a further realization that in respect of the contribution education might make towards their solution, countries with a shorter history of formal schooling and less rigidly established traditions might be able to innovate more easily than those whose systems were more firmly entrenched. But the process still proved a difficult and sometimes a painful one. On the one hand it presented seminar members with the task of trying to think laterally, of freeing themselves from the conceptual prisons in which conventional ideas and current terminologies had locked them. On the other, because they were all working policy makers, and because they could not afford the luxury of academic speculation on futures, they had to think continually in terms of what could be done *now* with *present resources* and in the present climate of educational opinion.

The fact that neither the conference nor this report has come up with a master plan to reorganise edcuation or save mankind is not, therefore, surprising. What may have been achieved was that some forty mature and sensible people from all round the world took time to sit down and look at their systems and their problems in the light of a new idea. As a result of putting their heads together, they decided that the idea was valuable to them as a viewpoint and as an organising principle;

that they would look at it further, and that, as a result of this reappraisal, some changes in direction might take place. Indeed many changes had taken place and deserved to become more widely known. As a result of these discussions, knowledge and experience was shared and the Institute in Hamburg gained further insights into the meaning of lifelong education and its implications for curriculum and curriculum development.

NOTES

1. R. H. Dave, *Lifelong Education and School Curriculum.* UIE Monographs 1. Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Education, 1973, pp. 90.
2. Report of the Regional Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States on Primary Education and Compulsory Education. Karachi, 28 December 1959 - 9 January 1960 (Doc ED/173). Paris: UNESCO, 1960, pp 52.
3. *Outline of a Plan for African Educational Development.* Conference of African States on the Development of Education in Africa, Addis-Ababa, 15-25 May 1961 (Doc ED/180). Paris: United Nations Economic Commission for Africa/UNESCO, 1961, pp 27.
4. For a discussion on the interpretation of quality in education see C.E.Beeby (ed.), *Qualitative Aspects of Educational Planning.* Paris: UNESCO/IIEP, 1969. The chapter on "The Meaning of Quality in Education" (pp. 149-167) by R. S. Peters is of particular relevance.

2 LIFELONG EDUCATION – MEANING AND IMPLICATIONS

A New Idea?

The report *Learning to Be* published in 1972 states, "We propose lifelong education as a master concept in the years to come for both developed and developing countries." Applications of the idea would differ greatly but "the question of lifelong education, the decisions to take and the paths to follow in order to achieve it, are the crucial issues in our time, in all countries of the world, even in those which have yet to become fully aware of this idea".[1]

Yet it may be argued that although the name may be new, individuals and the societies in which they live have long been aware of the idea. Everyone has always had to go on learning, if only to survive. Most of the great religious doctrines have enjoined individuals to seek enlightenment and every community gives greater or lesser opportunities for them to do so.

In countries in Asia and Africa, moreover, very strong traditions of lifelong learning are inherent in the structure of societies and many forms of education exist which provide opportunities for different groups to learn more at various stages in their lives.

Where the extended family is a major force in society as it is, for instance, in Kenya, the older members provide instruction, the closeness and support of the family enabling individuals in it to learn from one another.[2] Age groups, possibly originally sharers in some common initiation or coming of age ceremony, remain linked throughout life. Festivals and family reunions continue to be a time for sharing information and experience.

In most Asian and African countries, the force of religion is very strong and, quite apart from places of worship, places of study also exist which are open to young and old alike as in the pondok system in Malaysia where learners of all ages meet to study the Koran and its application to their lives. In other nations, the force of political ideology serves as another powerful instrument to educate children and communities.

Another agent for education is the apprenticeship system in its many forms, in the family and outside it. Sons and daughters learn from their parents in the home, in the field, in the craftsman's shop.[3] Outside the home all over Africa and Asia apprenticeship systems exist. Larger firms and enterprises provide formal instruction to those who join them, but every wayside motor mechanic or dressmaker or wireless repairer trains assistants and helps them to adapt the craft as new problems are brought to be solved, as new fashions and new models come onto the market.

In another sense, too, people are being continually educated. Information delivery systems exist in all countries, both by word of mouth and through newspapers and the mass media. Even in countries where literacy rates are low, the advent of transistor radios has brought information and ideas within reach of all but the very poorest. Mauritius has one transistor radio for every eight people, Iraq one for every six.[4] Television, too, is making its impact and this is not merely confined to newly affluent states, such as Kuwait,[5] for it may also be used consciously as a vehicle for national education as in the Ivory Coast.

Nor must efforts by governments and those of industry, churches and other agencies to provide adult education be overlooked. These include literacy campaigns and a wide variety of other education, training and extension opportunities offered by a very diverse range of agencies for an even wider range of consumers. Table 1 categorises services provided in Zambia, in addition to formal schooling for children and youth, and indicates something of the range of alternative patterns available in just one nation. A similar scale of activities might be found in most participating countries.

The School's Role

It would not be true to claim that the school did not play an important part in preparing individuals for the changes they encountered in life after their formal education ended. Colonial education, whose heritage is still very strong in school systems in Asia and Africa, took the development of certain skills and attitudes very seriously. Skills of literacy, clear expression and logical argument; attitudes of service, of loyalty, of integrity and of self-discipline were all engendered in the best schools and all stood leavers in good stead in the stable, stratified society and the bureaucratic administrative system for which they were intended.

Table 1
Alternative Forms of Adult Education - Zambia

1. Ministry of Rural Development:

a) Department of Agriculture

(i) Female extension programmes
(ii) Young Farmers Clubs
(iii) Farm extension work
(iv) Farm forums

b) Department of Community Development

(i) Home economics courses and advisory services
(ii) Community development programmes
(iii) Literacy programmes

c) Department of Cooperatives

(i) Cooperative education
(ii) Credit Unions

d) National Farming Information Services

(i) Radio programmes
(ii) Magazine publication

e) Supporting Organisations

(i) Association of Literacy Clubs
(ii) Annual shows
(iii) Home Economics Association

2. Ministry of Labour and Social Services

a) Labour Department

– Workers' education

b) Social Welfare Department

– Youth matters

c) Directorate of Sport

– Sports and physical training

d) Workers' Compensation Board

– Safety education in industry

3. Ministry of National Guidance and Planning

a) Department of National Guidance

(i) Political education
(ii) Leadership education

4. Ministry of Education and Culture

a) Adult Education Section

(i) Primary and secondary education
(ii) Vocational classes

b) Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training

(i) Vocational classes
(ii) Management training
(iii) Recreational courses

c) Department of Culture

– Literature, art and traditional dance promotion

d) Supporting Institutions

(i) Museums
(ii) Educational Broadcasting and Television Unit
(iii) Correspondence Course Unit
(iv) Zambia Library Service

5. Office of the President (Personnel Division)

a) Directorate of Civil Service Training

- (i) Management courses
- (ii) Supervisory courses
- (iii) Humanism courses
- (iv) Communications and human relations courses
- (v) Special English courses
- (vi) Leadership courses for councillors
- (vii) Teaching and learning techniques for adults
- (viii) Outward Bound training

6. Ministry of Home Affairs

a) Prison Department

- (i) Academic courses for prisoners and warders
- (ii) Vocational courses for prisoners

b) Commission for Refugees

- Courses for refugees

7. Ministry of Defence

a) Zambia Army

- Academic courses for soldiers

b) National Service

- Courses in youth camps

8. Ministry of Trade and Industry

- Metrication campaigns

9. Ministry of Lands and National Resources

- Conservation and environmental education

10. Ministry of Health: Health Education Unit

- Health education in health centres, on radio, etc.

11. National Road Safety Council of Zambia

- (i) Road use and safety programmes
- (ii) Control of driving schools

12. National Food and Nutrition Commission

- Nutrition and health education in various forms

13. Zambia Trade Union Congress

- Workers' education

14. Commercial Schools

- (i) Typing and secretarial courses
- (ii) Correspondence instruction

15. Mining Companies

- (i) Academic classes
- (ii) Recreational courses
- (iii) Home economics extension work
- (iv) Management courses
- (v) Technical and commercical courses
- (vi) Health education
- (vii) Safety education
- (viii) Community development

16. Churches

- (i) Academic education for adults
- (ii) Thrift and cooperative education
- (iii) Health education
- (iv) Home economics and training
- (v) Agricultural education

New Perspectives

If these elements were present in countries before the term "lifelong education" passed into currency, to what extent has it added anything to educational thought or action? What was missing from the old picture? One possible answer may be that the activities described were conceived piecemeal as a response to particular needs and not as part of any perceived educational philosophy. They were not linked consciously with value judgements about the quality of life, nor were they conceived as part of any policy of governments or demand from society that education should be made available throughout the lifetimes of citizens. Little or no organisation is evident in the planning and provision of the various activities mentioned. Moreover many unresolved contradictions and tensions exist between the different life styles and life perspectives they look towards: the static or the dynamic, the "traditional" or the "modern".

Furthermore, life perspectives on education, hitherto quite strong in the close-knit communities of societies such as Fiji or Uganda, have progressively grown weaker, for during the twentieth century education has become increasingly identified with formal schooling - and with formal schooling of a particular type. This is reflected in current usage and even official reports.[6] Thus we talk of a child "finishing his education", of governments "providing" so many years of education for citizens. We make a false dichotomy between education and training as if one began where the other left off. In our minds and in the thinking of governments, education has become time bound, age, stage, place and form bound. It was provided for children, for a certain fixed period of their lives in primary, secondary and tertiary stages clearly delimited in terms of the age of the child. It was provided in institutions and only in these institutions, by professional teachers and only by them. Certain forms of instruction were appropriate and certain forms were not. That is what most of us meant and still mean by education.

These concepts rest, as Parkyn[7] has pointed out, on a number of untenable assumptions: that childhood is uniquely the time for education, that children should be taught the things they need to know as adults, on the primacy of schooling in the educational process and the isolation of learning from the immediate context of action. The idea of education has become overlaid with all sorts of "cans" and "cant's", "do's" and "dont's" - what Torsten Husén[8] refers to as "pedagogic folklore". It has become increasingly identified with materialistic ends. Indeed, the true idea of education has become imprisoned in a way that it has never been in the past and should never be allowed to remain in the future. As one seminar member put it, "we must liberate education so that education can liberate us".

At the same time the context in which education is taking place has changed out of all recognition. No nation today can look toward a future dominated by bovine bureaucracy or place its faith in a school system which exists to produce "guardians" entrusted with the wellbeing of the rest of the community. Hence the role of school as it was originally conceived in colonial societies becomes increasingly inappropriate.

Thinking Again

The need to re-examine the role of education in society became very apparent in the 1950s and 1960s and the pressures to do so were very great. The details of the educational crisis, the knowledge explosion, the growing gap between what school taught and the needs of the world outside, have been ably described elsewhere and need not be repeated here.[9] All over the world, changing political, social and economic patterns give weight to the need for reappraisal; in new nations facing the great problems of building new economies and new societies, there has been a growing awareness, often not adequately shared by those who offer them aid, that borrowed systems and borrowed curricula are not applicable for their particular problems. Together with an appreciation of the *need* for change has come the realization that new knowledge about learners and their relationship with society and of new technology which may be applied to education may provide us with *means* for change which did not exist before in particular the advent of the transistor radio, of satellites to relay television signals and of simpler and more flexible techniques of printing and materials production have opened up new possibilities for educational expansion. More important and more subtle has been the widening in our understanding of what human beings are capable of, the discrediting of restrictive theories about the nature and growth of intelligence and a re-emphasis on the importance of human values rather than merely economic productivity as guiding principles for education. Above all there is to be discerned a most welcome humility among those who plan for the future - a realization that the processes are much more complex, much more uneven and much more human than many had cared to admit.[10]

Responses to these awakenings have been uneven and sometimes unsatisfactory. Old curricula have been traded in for new, but often new approaches have dealt narrowly with particular levels or particular subjects, paying little regard to their integration or interrelation. Systems of mass media have been set up with little consideration for the message they should convey. Critics have arisen ready and willing to question the whole basis of our school sytems but apparently unable to offer viable and applicable alternatives. Above all, there has remained a tandency to look at this or that kind of education rather than at education as a whole. In our passion for labelling we have coined terms: "formal", "non-formal", "informal" education; "pre-service" and "in-service" education, for we seem determined to look at each of our categories separately.

Looking at Wholes

It was the need to look at education in a wider perspective which particularly concerned international bodies at the end of the 1960s and which led in the early 1970s to the appointment of an International Commission on the Development of Education by the sixteenth general conference of UNESCO, to the publication of its report *Learning to Be* in 1972, to the development and the refinement of the idea of recurrent education[11] by the OECD and to the supporting research and development by various agencies including the Unesco Institute for Education.

There were two major results of these activities; the first a far greater emphasis on the whole idea of lifelong education viewed as an organising principle for educational development, the second a much more conscious attempt to examine the concept and to try to find out what was implied by it.

In the initial stage of dissemination, following the publication of the Commision's report, the ideas and the recommendations it contained were discussed by governments and by educationists all over the world. Different degrees of interest, commitment and involvement were shown, but in some countries the reaction was swift and dramatic, lifelong education being accepted as an organising principle to shape educational policies. Of the countries represented in the seminar, Algeria and Indonesia have both made such a commitment and in many other nations such as Peru and Tanzania, government policies are closely in tune with the concept. Naturally there is some distance to travel between commitment to the idea and its transformation into educational policy and practice but in many cases school systems and school curricula are already beginning to change as a result of such new perspectives in government policy.

The refinement of the idea of lifelong education has involved, and still involves, much thinking by many people. Such a wide and important concept is bound to be slippery. It can be used with such imprecision as to be no more than yet another educational platitude and the task, therefore, of those at present attempting to clarify the idea is to provide a set of understandings which is at the same time wide enough and rigorous enough to serve as an organising principle to guide educational policy and practice.

To this end an understanding of the *goals* of lifelong education is important. These include the ideas of "learning to be" and the "learning society". *Learning to be* incorporates the goals of learning to think, of becoming a productive citizen, of learning to act and react as a full member of society, but it comprises something greater and deeper than these. For "learning to be" involves a process of self-discovery and the achievement of an awareness of our capabilities as well as our shortcomings.

Because life itself is a continual process of learning, adapting and discovering ignorance, so the process of "learning to be" must also be a dynamic process. We learn more about ourselves and our world and so continually reveal to ourselves more things we just don't know. The *learning society* in which learners participate is also dynamic for it is continually being transformed by the learners who comprise it. It does not have a finite bank of knowledge to pass on. It is a society whose stock of knowledge is continually expanding, being evaluated and updated, where the process of learning is as important as its product. An essential attribute, therefore, of an individual in a learning society is the quality of *educability*, the desire and the means to learn and to go on learning.

As part of an initial study by the Unesco Institute for Education, twenty concept characteristics have been identified and these are listed in Appendix A. Several of the key concepts were discussed by the seminar in the light of conditions in the countries represented. They included (1) the goals of lifelong education; (2) the pre-conditions for lifelong education to take place; (3) the concept of integration implied by the idea; (4) the principle of flexibility; (5) the implications for learning styles and (6) the value of lifelong education as a master concept and as an organising principle. The sections which follow represent only a few first thoughts concerning the concepts and their implications but already they show clearly how these ideas gain new dimensions in the light of such discussions.

The Goals of Lifelong Education

The idea that individuals can go on learning, may choose their own paths to learning, must continually seek to gain a little more enlightenment and must do all this within a "learning society" which they support and which supports them - is an idea of great power but one which may have a different kind of relevance in different cultures.

It can also be mis-used. Many societies are conservative. Traditions of deference to authority, observance of form and ritual are strong. These may have been transferred into the process of government and used consciously to enforce the discipline needed for nation building. In this context "learning to be" can easily be transformed into "learning to be like I tell you" and the "learning society" may be interpreted at being passive rather than active. Thus in the hands of those who are prepared to exploit it lifelong education may be transformed into lifelong indoctrination.

"Learning to be", moreover, as it is sometimes interpreted, stresses the importance of the individual's decisions and actions, lauding personal initiative and ambition provided they are not anti-social. But in some countries in Asia and Africa group decisions and group actions may be more in tune with traditional patterns of society or modern political philosphy in action such as the Ujamaa village of Tanzania or the Chinese commune. Moreover, cultural values may not extol ambition and the will to innovate in the same way as those in Western countries whose context of thought derives from the Greeks, and where values have been moulded by the demands of a competitive industrial society.

One further issue is relevant. The learning society may find it easier to operate when its values are shared by the majority of its members. Yet, as already indicated, many nations all over the world, including not a few represented in the seminar, are intensely pluralistic. This presents a dilemma. On the one hand there is a danger that in order to reach a consensus within such a society a distinctive set of values may be so diluted as to lack any real power of good. Alternatively where one set of values is strongly maintained there is a possibility that education may be used by one group in society to "enslave" others.

None of these issues invalidate the principles of "learning to be" or of the "learning society". Education in developing countries *must* liberate, *must* help people discover themselves, *must* set thought on the move, for the dangers of fossilisation of educational practices and institutions is very great; but it must do so differently within the contexts of the different cultures it serves, recognising the dangers of indoctrination, safeguarding the rights of minorities or positively discriminating in their favour and recognising that there are acceptable alternatives to individualism.

Prerequisites for Lifelong Education

These may be defined as opportunity, motivation and educability, a degree of effort being essential to both motivation and educability.

Opportunity will be differently interpreted and differently available. Its interpretation will depend on philosophies of life which may vary greatly between societies. But it must nevertheless remain an aim for every society to achieve as much democratisation as possible; to offer increasingly greater opportunities for members to go on learning and to help ensure that such opportunities are shared more equally than they may have been in the past. Yet to some degree human and economic resources within countries must necessarily determine the extent to which opportunity is available. Chances to profit from lifelong education must necessarily be very different for the town dweller in Djakarta and for the peasant in Afghanistan.

Moreover, societies can hardly do more than offer opportunities of lifelong education to those prepared to take them, and it is certain that in many cases the effort required to take advantage of these in a developing country is far greater than it would be in a high income industrialised society. (it requires more effort, to use a simplistic example, to make one's way to a communal television than to watch programmes in one's own living room.) The question of *motivation* is thus very critical, and motivation is likely to vary quite drastically between those who passionately want to find "room at the top" and who are supported by their families and communities in this resolve, and those whose cultural patterns do not particularly favour self-improvement or whose experience has made them very wary of what is being offered them by governments or by other groups in society more powerful and influential than themselves. A real danger therefore exists that a combination of the factors of opportunity and motivation may lead to widening rather than narrowing gaps in society, for those who have opportunities may very well be also those who are motivated to seek more. We need, therefore, to ask ourselves how the poorly motivated can be helped and how new patterns of education can be devised to avoid the widening of such gaps in society. In this respect, the motivation of the "haves" in society to improve the conditions of the "have nots" becomes important. Some countries may be said to have an "elite of leisure" who somehow or other have made it to the top and are concerned with staying there with the minimum of effort and an "elite of labour" whose preoccupation is to improve the conditions of the community where they are the leaders. The latter are socially motivated and can help to motivate others.

Issues arising from opportunity and motivation are linked with aspects of *educability*.[12] Clearly the idea of educability, embracing as it does the receptiveness, the open-mindedness and the health of mind and body to accept new ideas as well as a complex of skills and attitudes to learning such as oracy, observation, manipulative skills or the ability to learn from others, extends far further than mere numeracy and literacy. But the latter remains of considerable importance since literacy provides a key to flexible learning and the ability to profit from self-instruction. Thus, yet another potential divisive force may be recognised, for there is a real possibility that those who possess certain skills will be able to adapt and progress far quicker than others. Hence a real danger exists of learners abandoning and being abandoned by the educational system because they do not possess the necessary tools to profit from the opportunities being made available to them.

Yet the most essential factor about educability is that it is culture-based and the study of how and why people of different cultures learn and the reasons why they erect barriers to learning is therefore of crucial importance. So far our evidence on these matters is woefully inadequate.

The Concept of Integration

Lifelong education implies two types of integration. It implies *horizontal integration*, that is a bringing together of all the various types of education being provided within the society, in school and out of it, so that they can support each other;

and it also implies *vertical integration*, that is the articulation of various types of education made available to individuals throughout their lifetime. There needs to be integration of *aims* so that all educational effort is complementary and also integration of *means* to maximise resources and to avoid costly and bewildering overlapping of effort.

We must recognise, however, that no discussion of integration can profitably take place without parallel consideration of the purpose and quality of the educational experiences we are trying to promote. The mere provision of integrated opportunities for certain forms of training can prove to be a tool for effective systematic conditioning and not primarily a means to promote lifelong education.

The task of achieving satisfactory horizontal and vertical integration is a daunting one, but no less imperative for that, for the current lack of it not only wastes resources and promotes inefficiency but also erects artificial barriers within society. In this respect the isolation of the school from what goes on around it, from what has happened before and what will take place afterwards is particularly regrettable. Indeed the very length of time a child spends in formal school can cut him off from his community. In the light of this concept of integration, current attempts to delimit areas of formal, non-formal and informal education would seem inappropriate. Rather education can be viewed as consisting of opportunities from the most formal to the least formal depending on a number of variables such as how far it is planned, who provides it, where it is provided and the kind of reward system it offers.

The task of achieving integration involves both promoting a dialogue between all those various agencies involved in setting goals and providing educational opportunities, and devising policy machinery to transform the results of such dialogues into action. Government structures such of those of Indonesia where all public education is under a single ministry clearly promote integration; but even in countries where different agencies are responsible for school and out-of-school education, for child and for adult education, much can be achieved to coordinate policies and activities.

Two aspects relating to this task need to be considered. The first is that any dialogue set in motion should consider priorities in relation to different forms of education, in other words what aspects of education might best be advanced by what means and at what stage. Thus it might be agreed that while basic knowledge and skills were easiest taught in school, mass media, on-the-job training, or the family might prove more effective instruments to further other educational goals. The second issue is that a knowledge or understanding of those agencies which provide education is an essential prerequisite to integrating their efforts. This understanding is frequently lacking, and there is, here, a profitable field for research, survey, and the interchange of information between agencies. In this regard it is important too, to characterise, compare and contrast the different goals and approaches of different forms of education. To a degree it is valuable for these to complement each other, but when there is too great a divergence, when, for instance, home and school expect very different ways of thought and behaviour from the learner, then problems arise, stresses and tensions are built up in the society.

But the possibility of achieving integration rests, as does all change, on the willingness of human beings to accept it. Articulation of educational efforts does not necessarily imply more central control but it does involve more sharing of information and a greater degree of mutual understanding. Lack of such understanding, distrust, or unwillingness to give up a little authority on the part of a few can effectively inhibit change.

It is equally important that the users of educational services should themselves be consulted especially since very frequently the integration of different forms of education cannot be achieved without changes in the nature and structure of the institutions which provide it. Unless such modifications are explained and discussed, they may be vehemently distrusted by communities convinced (often on the basis of bitter experience) that they are being sold short.

Flexibility and Diversity

Another aspect of the concept of lifelong education is that of flexibility in the content of what is learnt, in the process of teaching and learning, in the tools used and in the time taken.

For, if the centre of the process is the individual and the individual's relationship to the "learning society", there must, logically, be many paths to learning which must be recognised as suitable and appropriate not because they have always been used or because everyone uses them but rather in respect of how far they lead the individual effectively to where he wants to go.

But these alternative paths are strewn with obstacles, different values accorded to different contents and styles of learning, the primacy accorded to school education, the equation of time spent and ground covered with standards reached, the inflexibility of administrative processes, the rigidity and centralisation of the examination system. While many of these factors may be dismissed as the effects of outmoded traditions or as pedagogic folklore, there are also political reasons for such inflexibility. It may seem important for governments engaged in reconciling various conflicting interests within a country to be seen to be providing education of the same length and form and leading to the same terminal assessment for all learners at a particular level. Such factors and others which render contents and processes of existing educational systems resistent to the flexibility required by the perspective of lifelong education need to be identified before means are sought to overcome them.

Flexibility can be achieved through the use of new media, the loosening up of examination regulations, the provision of alternative structures of school and teacher preparation, and the replacement of rigid programmes of "ground to be covered" with a pattern of units of work leading to the achievement of certain desired goals. Examples of the use of television for children and adults in the Ivory Coast, of the provision of unstreamed schools in Saudi Arabia, of shorter alternatives to primary school courses for older children in Iraq or alternative programmes of basic education in Brazil, of examination reform in Tanzania all prove that these goals are possible to achieve. But progress towards achieving them is slow involving a process of educating parents, who, in the Ivory Coast reacted violently against widespread use of television in primary schools on the grounds that the regular teachers were not "teaching". Politicians, moreover, not infrequently condemn alternatives because their constituents complain.

Learning Styles

New goals, new structures, new paths to learning throw into relief the insufficiency of many commonly adopted learning styles for the needs of lifelong education. Currently group guided learning, seen most frequently as teacher controlled classroom instruction, accounts for the vast majority of learning time and learning effort.

Many alternative styles are desirable and possible. These include inter-learning in groups and through less formal contacts with other learners, individual learning where a learner follows a path at his own speed (i.e. in reading or working through a programme) and self-directed learning where a learner chooses his own path, selecting, possibly, from a number of styles. The adoption of such new styles depends on the age of the learner, on his own personality, on his motivation and on the subject learnt.

New approaches clearly involve new skills for the learner and new methods of assessment. In many countries in Asia and Africa education systems may have been particularly slow in developing skills appropriate to individual and self-directed learning. This may be partly the result of approaches handed down from colonial systems of education and may also derive from traditional patterns of authority and education where group guided learning traditions were very strong.[13] Moreover lack of money and educational materials have always contrived to make the task of those seeking to serve the needs of the individual or group far more difficult.

Yet already examples can be seen of new learning styles in action. Programmed material proves slow to become adopted because of cost, but correspondence materials, particularly in respect of the in-service training of teachers[14] continue to be developed and refined and demands for multi-media materials which learners can follow at their own speed are beginning to be met by institutions such as Pakistan's People's Open University and the Mauritius College of the Air. Other patterns are emerging, some using radio with support material and monitors or even co-learners to help discuss problems, guide discussion or correct written work. One such example is provided by Radio Santa Maria in the Dominican Republic where learners are thus enabled to follow an alternative path to the conventional primary school, starting at any age and in their own homes.

Lifelong Education as a Master Concept

From the analysis made so far the full meaning of lifelong education as a *master concept* becomes apparent. It embodies the whole range of education to which human beings may be exposed. Thus the different forms we currently label as "school education", "concurrent and recurrent education", "adult education", "continuing education" and "functional education" are all comprised. It also provides overall principles against which the efficiency and the value of these activities can be judged. It provides a rationale for selection between alternatives and criteria for action. It can provide a means of relating different aspects of education and of setting priorities both with regard to what is valuable and what is not, and also in respect of what means are most appropriate for what purpose.

The important question remains as to how relevant the concept is to countries in the stages of development of those represented in the seminar. Looked at in terms of a *new system* of education to replace what has gone before, it is easy to view these ideas as desirable but utopian. To move rapidly from a state where 80% of citizens were illiterate and where not all children receive basic education to a "learning society" where every individual has a chance to improve his own education may be beyond the bounds of immediate possibility.

Looked at, however, as a *direction of change* the principles become more capable of realisation. If we think in terms of becoming *more aware* of the goals, offering *more facilities* for integration, a *greater measure* of flexibility, and *more* diversification of learning styles, then progress towards these aims can be achieved. There are financial implications in the setting up of new programmes, in new dimensions of training and the design and production of new materials, and also in the re-education of the community so that it may accept new patterns; but once we think of the idea of lifelong education as a road down which we may travel at different speeds according to our capabilities to overcome the obstacles in our paths then some progress can always be achieved and measured. As one group in the seminar reported, "lifelong education is sufficiently flexible and diverse to be adaptable to any country".

But looked at in terms of a *perspective* there appears to be little question that the ideas are of value. There are still limitations in our understanding of the full implications of these concepts. One of the overtones surrounding them relating to interpretations of quality and to premium placed on individualism may be subject to re-interpretation in some societies. But the idea remains one of great power both for assessing the relevance of present programmes and structures and of providing guidelines for future thinking and action.

NOTES

1. E. Faure et al., *Learning to Be. The World of Education Today and Tomorrow*. Paris: UNESCO, 1972, pp. 182.
2. As described, for instance, in Kenyatta's *Facing Mount Kenya*:

   > In a European's life the school is usually the first big influence which takes him away from his parents and brings him as an individual into a seperate relationship with the State, but Kikuyu boys and girls do not have to make this break. They naturally learn their tribal traditions and moral values from their parents and grandparents, so that they grow up with a simple family allegiance through which they come to understand their duties to the rest of the world. At the same time a great deal of their life and activity is carried on with their own age-group, through whom they learn the lessons of equality and co-operation.

   J. Kenyatta, *Facing Mount Kenya*. London: Heinemann, 1961, pp. 313.
3. ... as they have done for centuries. The Guinean, Camara Laye, provides us with a moving description of a little boy learning the marvels and mysteries of the goldsmith's craft from his father in *The African Child*.
   Camara Laye, *The African Child*. London: Fontana, 1959, pp. 24-32. (Originally *L'Enfant Noir*. Paris: Librairie Plon, 1954.)
4. *UNESCO Statistical Yearbook 1973*. Paris: UNESCO, 1974.
5. Kuwait had 137 television sets per thousand inhabitants in 1972.
6. The World Bank's Education Sector Working Paper published in December 1974 which discusses new trends in policy refers throughout to "education" when it means "schooling": e.g. "New and diversified programs are designed to take

into account the terminal character of lower levels of education for the large majority of the participants." (p. 31.)

7. See G. W. Parkyn, *Towards a Conceptual Model of Lifelong Education*. Paris: UNESCO, 1972. pp. 54.
8. T. Husén, *The Learning Society*. London: University of London Press, 1974. pp. 268.
9. See *Learning to Be*; also P. H. Coombs, *The World Educational Crisis*. London: Oxford University Press, 1968. pp. 241.
10. This approach was very evident in the planning and procedures of a recent UNESCO/UNICEF Cooperation Programme *Basic Education in Eastern Africa*. Report of a Seminar, Nairobi, Kenya, 19-23 August, 22-26 October 1974. Paris: UNESCO, 1975.
11. The concept of recurrent education implies the organisation of recurrent opportunities for learning following an initial stage of education. It is thus an important element in the wider process of lifelong education.
12. The concept of educability is further defined and discussed in Appendix A,
13. In many societies learning imparted by a "teacher" is still more highly regarded than learning acquired on one's own. Such attitudes may have their origins in oral patterns of teaching through family or clan, the secular or religious community. In all these it was important for "the word" to be passed on backed by the wisdom and authority of its transmitter.
14. Many multi-media programmes for teacher re-education exist as in Uganda and Zambia. A number have been funded initially by UNICEF.

3 BASIC EDUCATION AND ITS CURRICULUM

I. DEFINITIONS

What are the First Phases in Lifelong Education?

Children growing up must at the same time learn to live in the present and to face the future. They must learn to live in their families and in their communities as they are now, but must also receive some form of education to enable them to go on learning and adapting to the world around them as it evolves. The first process begins in the family and continues throughout childhood in many ways and through many means. The second is gained in part through experience but is also, in most societies, consciously transmitted. The basic stage of education is very largely concerned with this second process.

What do we Mean by "Basic Education"?

The concept of basic education has been developed and discussed by UNESCO in recent years and the text of a final report of a meeting of experts in June 1974 to discuss what they refer to as "the basic cycle of studies" is included in Appendix B. Once we adopt the perspective of lifelong education it becomes apparent that to define this basic cycle in terms of content and structures of formal schooling will no longer serve, for the definition will be too narrow. It is more profitable to think of it in terms of aims and of goals to be reached (rather than in terms of time spent or ground covered) accepting that a variety of means, more or less conventional, will be employed toward attaining these goals. The UNESCO meeting sees the curriculum of the basic cycle as including

> a core of behaviour, knowledge, values and experiences to enable the individual to:
>
> develop his individual potentialities to the full;
>
> actively participate in society through continued study or introduction to the world of work and to the world of culture;
>
> be a productive, effective and happy citizen;
>
> continue his lifelong education;
>
> develop a creative personality and critical mind so that he might, with understanding in cooperation with others, contribute to the further development of a good human society for himself, his family and all other people of the world;
>
> achieve physical well-being and health.[1]

But although the formal school system cannot be considered as the only means of providing basic education, it is still the most important means and that of most concern to members of our seminar and this report, particularly once we realise that schools need not be the rigid institutions they so often are at present, where only curriculum content is considered as a variable while age, place and length of course are constants. For if we accept the idea of a basic cycle as leading towards a set of goals, we can see that where the main aims may remain the same, the time taken and the paths followed, even within a school framework, may vary very widely, as will the interpretation of what we mean by "school".

Schools as Providers of "Basic Education"

Once, therefore, we begin to look at our schools in this perspective, implications can be discussed in three major fields: (1) in respect of the design of curriculum, (2) in respect of implications on structures and policies through which this curriculum is implemented and (3) in respect of the preparation of those involved in its implementation, principally, but not exclusively, the teachers. Although the major concern of the seminar was in the field of curriculum design the other two sets of implications were recognised as inseparable from it, were considered and are reported briefly.

Curriculum and its Components: Working Definitions

The seminar accepted a working definition of curriculum as "all goal-directed educational activities that are generated by the school whether they take place in the institution or outside it". The various components of curriculum in relation to the development were also itemised. These include:

Aims and objectives - aims being interpreted as desired directions of educational progress, objectives as more specific and well defined targets of achievement. Aims and objectives are formed at various levels, from the minister of education down to the individual teacher, parent and child.

The curriculum plan - which relates to both content and process. The plan itself is presented in written documents of various types, prepared and used at different levels, including syllabuses, schemes and timetables. Systems vary widely as to the amount of decisions taken at various levels.

Teaching methods and learning activities - include all those, formal and informal, which take place in the school, in class and out of it; inter-school activities; activities planned in the school, but carried out in the community (like health campaigns and social work) as well as activities generated in the school by societal agencies outside it.

Learning materials - refers to all written, audio and visual material used in schools, both commercially and locally produced; to learning materials deriving from the environment as well as to out-of-school resources such as libraries and museums.

Evaluation - refers primarily to pupil assessment (though it also includes procedures for guidance). It may be formal or informal and is carried out during a school year, at the end of it and at the end of a school stage, by the students themselves, by the school or by agencies outside it.[2]

Curriculum in Context

School curriculum is planned and implemented in the context of a social and political framework by teachers and other educationists who themselves are part of this society, for learners who are growing up in it and within a financial, administrative and material framework. Thus, unless the society understands and is prepared to accept (or, at least, not to oppose) change, unless those who contemplate change attempt to understand the society and the pupil's growth and development within it, unless they understand the nature of the other learning systems in that society, the school curriculum loses its relevance and effectiveness. Furthermore, unless the curriculum is geared to educational realities - finance, material provision and capabilities of teachers to interpret it, it is in danger of becoming (and often becomes) an *official* rather than an *actual* curriculum.

To achieve a better understanding of the context involves three processes. It involves synthesising information already available but which has not been gathered together for these particular purposes, such as the appraisal of all kinds of learning situations, formal and informal, which already exist. It involves finding out new information including fundamental psychological and sociological research or, more simply, the gathering together of further practical information about how the system actually operates. Finally it involves the painful recognition of the full difficulties facing the innovator, constraints imposed by lack of knowledge, lack of resources, lack of motivation and all the other factors which contribute to the reluctance of societies and school systems to accept change. There is an infinite temptation to make light of these forces, especially in situations where current structures seem so inappropriate and where change seems so obviously desirable as in many systems represented in the seminar, but these forces have successfully resisted change in the past and will continue to do so unless they are recognised.

An analysis of the functions of the institutions represented in the seminar reveals a growing awareness of the role of research as complementary to curriculum development. Eight of the institutions represented conduct basic research. The need to coordinate research activities within and between countries and to link educational research with the wider issue of economic and social development has been recognised in the creation of the African Bureau of Educational Sciences in Zaire, a branch of the International Association for the Advancement of Educational Research.

II. LOOKING AT CURRICULUM COMPONENTS

Bearing in mind, therefore, the context of *implementation, the* seminar next set itself to examine each curriculum component in this basic stage of lifelong education looking first at the implication within the formal school system and next at the implication which might be involved in a wider interpretation.

Aims and Objectives

Once the aims and objectives of basic education are considered in the context of lifelong education our time perspective widens. The purpose of the initial phase of education is seen, not merely as leading on either towards a second stage of education or towards some form of employment when a child leaves school, but rather as leading the learner towards an awareness of the need for lifelong learning, and developing his capacity to profit from it. A sound basic education should therefore give the learner the attitudes and skills as well as some of the knowledge necessary for increasing participation in a changing society. Such participation requires intellectual curiosity, creativity and a capacity for critical thought as well as attitudes of independence, self-confidence and responsibility which will induce him to develop his capabilities throughout his lifetime through a wide variety of educational means, for his own betterment and that of his fellow men.

This implies that objectives for the basic stage are very largely concerned with the enhancement of the learner's educability in its widest sense. This involves increasing his competence to profit from different learning strategies - with a teacher or without one, individually or in a variety of groups and patterns of interaction, as well as developing basic skills *in oracy, reading*, observation, comprehension and manipulation, all of which enable him to learn through a wide variety of media. It also involves developing in learners the will and the power to recognise their own needs and to plan their own learning.

Once the wider perspective is accepted, the school need no longer be regarded as isolated from other educational influences. Its aims may therefore be seen as complementary and supplementary to them. This implies both an awareness of the related roles of the school and the community in, say, health education but also a realisation that there are areas where the school need not "go it alone" but may merely reinforce the community, e.g. in religious, cultural or vocational education.

Aims in the Context of Action

But unless aims are capable of attainment they remain mere excuses for inaction. In order to underline this, one seminar working group decided to list examples of various methods actually used in the countries its members represented to achieve two of the aims mentioned above, i.e. (1) to instill a sense of responsibility and (2) to develop intellectual curiosity. The lists produced were too long to quote here: the methods employed to create a sense of responsibility ranging from obliging the children to take turns in feeding the chickens on the school farm to running classes for illiterates. But all these methods had common characteristics. They (1) involved the provision of opportunity for the students to act responsibly; (2) required the practice of recently acquired skills in obviously-useful ways; (3) promoted the socialisation of the students since they were likely to earn the social approval of the group, class, school or community. The methods listed which might be used to stimulate curiosity had these common characteristics: they involved activity on the part of the students - including observation, comparison, problem-solving and research of the most elementary kind. In both instances the exercise demonstrated not only that aims have recognisable implications but also that the kind of curricular activities they imply are often far removed from those which take place in most primary schools in the countries represented.

Different Groups - Common Objectives

It may be argued that different aims and objectives are appropriate for different groups in society. In particular it is often urged that appropriate objectives should be set for rural education. Such reasoning can be dangerous. Curricular content and methods must naturally vary according to the ages of the learners and the environment in which they learn. Thus the materials and the experiences, for example, through which reading, or health education or the basis of scientific thinking are learnt is bound to vary. But the skills, the understandings, the attitudes which must be acquired to increase educability are virtually the same and it may prove, for instance, quite contrary to the principles of flexibility inherent in the concept of lifelong education to suggest a fundamentally different approach for children of rural farmers than for those of urban shopkeepers. For both categories education must exist to set learners free to learn further. In each case the only sensible context through which they can learn is the environment they know, but in neither case can it be assumed that they should be trained with a view to staying incapsulated in this environment throughout their lives. To do so would be to promote imprisonment rather than enlightenment in the name of lifelong education.

Selection and Organisation of Curriculum Content

On considering the implications of the new perspective on the curriculum plan, three major issues are examined; the need to set priorities, to provide for a greater degree of flexibility and to consider the implications of the concept of integration.

Setting priorities

Some elements of content are far more appropriate to the goals of lifelong education than others and in any attempt to select from current curricula or to frame new ones there is a need both to establish priorities for what must be included and to decide what may be omitted.

Two elements are of particular importance: those which are *instrumental* to gaining further knowledge and those which serve to *relate* different areas of knowledge to one another to promote understanding of "wholes". This applies to subjects within the curriculum but also to the organisation of content within different areas of the curriculum. The importance of stressing language skills, manipulation skills and practical experience in problem-solving have all been mentioned earlier in the report as has the need to relate content to the environment, but in order that they be given the prominence they deserve, (for skill training, the study of the environment and the learning techniques required to solve problems all take time) much of the conventional factual content will have to be excised.

Flexibility

Yet the implications for the design of curriculum plans at various levels are not merely confined to selection. Once individual and group differences are accepted, together with the existence of alternative paths to learning and the possibility of accepting age and length of course as a variable in the basic cycle, the manner in which syllabuses, programmes of study and timetables are drawn up both within systems and within institutions must be questioned. Certainly greater flexibility and a greater provision for the development of individual potential within current programmes is both desirable and possible. More radical alternatives such as the replacement of current plans by a far shorter core followed by extensive provision for individual options or the development of a more flexible unit structure need also to be examined seriously. But they will pose problems of organisation and training, involve some financial cost and present a challenge to the design and production of materials in developing countries. They also raise the now familiar issue of changing attitudes: of persuading both designers and users to accept new patterns which are less familiar, less easy to administer (because they are less tidy) and which involve everyone in the system in more work.

Integration

The integration of school with community and with other learners and learning situations within that community may require us to look again at curriculum plans. An example of the modifications which may result is taken from Uganda where a number of schools are participating in the Namutamba rural education project some fifty miles from Kampala.

This project, aiming towards rural development of the whole community, introduces a considerable amount of integration within the programme of studies much of which is carried out in the environment outside the school and thus oversteps conventional timetable and subject boundaries. But the programme also attempts the wider goal of integrating child, youth and adult education through helping all these groups to regard the school as a resource centre. To this end the formal school operates a single morning session of five hours, leaving the rest of the day for projects undertaken by pupils which include brick making for home improvement, Young Farmers Club activities, home gardening, apprenticeship schemes, written assignments, workshop practice, athletics and cultural activities. All these are considered as complementary learning activities to the normal school programme. During the afternoon the school buildings are used for a variety of adult education and community purposes and the teachers undertake further community work outside them. The Namutamba project illustrates merely one pattern of community-based basic education. There are and can be many alternatives. But it illustrates how, whenever a really serious degree of integration is attempted, the conventional curriculum plan must be considerably modified.

A Wider Look at the Selection and Organisation of Content

Seen in its widest perspective the selection of content must be considered in relation to the needs of individuals in the context of the life they live and the other educational experiences available or likely to be available to them. It must also depend on resources available for learning and on the capability and motivation of learners who differ widely. Looked at in this light it again becomes necessary to stress that rigid centralised syllabuses listing the same "ground to be covered" by large numbers of different learners in different situations at the same stage in their school career do not make educational sense and to stress again the necessity of establishing *ways* of learning, *ways* of thinking, *ways* of gaining increasing and sharing enlightenment as a basis for selection and organisation.

Teaching Methods and Learning Activities

Approaches to teaching and learning cannot easily be separated from the learning materials used and thus the two issues were considered together at the seminar.

Surveying Resources

It is impossible to ignore the fact that certain minimum material needs must be satisfied to enable learning to take place effectively. True, a brilliant teacher can educate irrespective of what resources are available. A brilliant and well-motivated learner can profit from most opportunities. But in average conditions and with average people adequate resources facilitate learning and lack of them very severely inhibits the type of teaching and learning possible, and may force a teacher towards those formal, regimented approaches which have the security of familiarity and which are easiest to sustain in difficult circumstances.

It is therefore appropriate at the outset to survey both human and material resources available in relation to the new role we would hope for from teachers and learners. The consequent appraisal may easily reveal sad limitations: ill-educated, ill-trained or untrained teachers apparently unable or unwilling to contemplate change; poorly built, overcrowded classrooms with no storage facilities, furnished, if they are furnished, with antique and unsuitable furniture; high pupil-teacher ratios; limited means for production or supply of adequate learning materials; poor radio reception ... the list can be extended.

Yet at the same time an imaginative assessment may also reveal potential resources unused or untapped within national or local communities: local volunteer teachers and animators, craftsmen, professionals and technicians with the will and ability to share their know how with learners; traditional arts, crafts, literature, music and medicine within a culture and potential teachers of these; community funds and effort in kind; materials available in the home, but which may be borrowed for school use e.g. transistor radios or agricultural tools; local raw materials and industrial and agricultural waste of various kinds (e.g. off-cuts of wood, paper, cloth).

To these may be added locally and nationally produced educational materials which may include not only textbooks, radio programmes and locally produced teaching equipment in a variety of available materials, but also less commonly used materials such as newspapers, commercial advertising and packaging.

Implications for Selection, Design and Production of Materials

Once available resources have been examined, the implications of the new perspective can be considered, and here again the ideas of flexibility and integration pose a considerable challenge. The importance of emphasizing new learning styles, rather than placing over-reliance on the relatively inflexible methods of group guided learning has already been mentioned, but new styles require new orientation of teachers and production of new kinds of educational materials. These clearly raise administrative and financial problems. Self-instructional materials tend to be longer; diversified materials will be produced in smaller numbers for each printing and both, therefore, may prove more costly. There may also be problems in relation to storage of materials other than textbooks. But these problems are all, eventually, capable of solution, while at an initial stage, attention might well be paid to designing textbooks capable of more flexible use, more attuned to promoting problem-solving, and to the encouragement of self-learning, also to the production of more challenging radio programmes.

If methods and materials are to promote integration between school and the society of which it forms part, still further changes will be needed in both. In respect of materials it is clear that those produced for adults and those provided for children cannot be identical, but it is equally true that once the necessity to provide links is recognised, a great deal of common ground can be found. The same radio programmes may be used for slightly different purposes and there can be some overlap in written and pictorial materials. Materials in health education and agricultural education, for example, are frequently designed and produced quite separately for schools and for extension work by separate departments. Much is to be gained here by coordination and there is no reason, for instance, why programmes for teaching basic communication skills for children should not include far more of such materials than they do at present in many countries.

In certain countries different languages are used for the education of adults and that of children. Adult literacy classes take place in the mother tongue whereas the basic cycle of school education is carried on in a foreign language. This policy hardly promotes integration.

The demands of both flexibility and integration imply the desirability not only of further localisation in the content of the curriculum for the basic cycle but also that more attention be paid to the design and production of materials relevant to local needs. To this end the design of such materials by national curriculum centres, local teachers centres (preferably attached to schools) and by teachers themselves would seem essential. To achieve this, however, some facilities, some funding, some expertise is necessary, together with the will on the part of those who plan education nationally to allow such variations.

Evaluation

What to Evaluate

Since we are regarding the basic cycle as a first phase in a process of lifelong education, the purpose of evaluation is clearly to ascertain how far and how efficiently it provides learners with a good start; also to provide appropriate guidance both to the individual learner and to those responsible for the design and implementation of programmes leading towards improvement in the efficiency of the process.

But this task is far more complex than it appears, since longer term effects are clearly so much more important than short term ones. It is of relatively little importance what skills and attitudes a child appears to possess when his basic education cycle is finalised. What is crucial is how far these will contribute to his future development and how long they will stay with him.

How to Evaluate

Some of the goals of the basic cycle relate to the development of skills, others to the promotion of attitudinal changes far less subject to short term evaluation. In each case, however, it is important that the student himself understands what the evaluation aims to measure and why. in this way he can recognise his successes not as ends in themselves but rather as offering a means of making adjustments in his "learning path". Lack of success, thus, comes to be regarded as a learning experience and not as a failure.

The new perspective both invites a reappraisal of existing evaluation practices and poses challenges for the design of alternatives to them. It is not only the lack of emphasis on skills and attitudes in current techniques of evaluation which are called into question, it is their whole emphasis. Questions which need to be asked include the following:

- How far can we justify the primacy given to teacher, school and external assessments of learners as against assessments made by individuals and groups of learners of their own progress?
- How far is the great emphasis placed on written instruments of evaluation justified when lifelong education postulates the development of so many other skills and attitudes?
- How far can we justify the frequent exclusion of the community in assessment of the progress and potential of the young learners who live in it?
- Are not methods of assessment and evaluation still far too rigid, tending to test attainment at certain "levels" for all students at the same time rather than to chart the progress of learners along different paths and at different speeds? And does not excessive comparison and competition between learners overemphasize uniformity and impair the ability of the individual to assess his own progress? How far indeed is the idea of competition acceptable in all cultures?
- Is not the value of frequent comparisons between learners limited, since they are based only on those criteria which are most easily measurable?
- How far are present concepts of "pass" and "fail" and present ideas of final examinations and terminal evaluation re-

levant in a situation where the basic cycle is conceived only as a first phase in a continuum of lifelong education?

These questions imply new tasks for those of us involved in designing evaluation systems and instruments. They suggest that we must consider widening the scope and means of evaluation and building a flexible system in which the progress of learners is charted along the various paths they follow rather than devising a single obstacle race where only those who reach the finish are recognised and recorded. Above all they emphasize that self-evaluation is central to lifelong learning and that an urgent need exists to increase the emphasis placed on self-evaluation in the design of curricula for basic education.

Yet it is relatively easy to talk glibly about developing new assessment techniques and far, far more difficult to devise and evaluate them. A wealth of research and development work is needed here.

A Note on Guidance

An essential feature of basic education is to provide guidance to the learner to help him learn better and to make better choices as a member of society both while he is receiving basic education and afterwards. Such guidance must be the result of the joint efforts of the learner himself and of others, peers, teachers, parents and other adults. Whenever guidance is given to a learner we can naturally expect that it will be culture based and that it will reflect the personality of the "guider". Moreover guidance will be provided by a society whether its members intend so or not. If, for instance, a society clearly accords higher status to a bank clerk than it does to a fisherman, than that society is providing guidance to its young members in their career choices and anything a school preaches to the contrary is clearly hypocritical. Nevertheless there is still much that can be done towards preparation of materials for use by parents, teachers and other community members to ensure that young learners make the wisest choices available to them both during and at the end of their basic education.

III. TOWARDS IMPLEMENTATION

Few curricular decisions of any kind can be implemented without implications for policies in education, for financial and administrative provision and for education structures. The implications suggested by the analysis made so far are very great indeed. They may be categorised as follows:

Implications for Policy and Structures

Implications for the design of systems:
Alternative patterns of schooling need to be considered together with alternative arrangements of learning time to suit varying needs of learners and their communities. In Iraq, for example, shorter courses in the basic cycle have been devised for older boys and girls. In Tanzania village school programmes are left flexible to allow learners to take part in

agricultural and development projects at local level.

Alternative means of learning need not to be employed including use of the mass media, within the limits of its capabilities, and the full exploitation of community resources both human and material. The extensive use of educational television in the Ivory Coast will provide very valuable experience for other systems.

Implication for administration of systems:

Coordination and integration of different modes of education must be achieved. This would involve greater interchange of resources between basic education for different groups in the community as in Indonesia where experiments are taking place in the use of "learning officers" whose role is to marshal community resources for learning, and the development of "learning centres" (Centres for Educational Development) which all learners within the community attend.

Flexibility must also be made possible. This may involve new approaches to timetabling to allow for greater school and community integration; as described, for instance, in the experimental Namutamba project in Uganda. It also implies provision of opportunities for learners to break across class, age and institutional divisions to allow them to follow separate paths more easily at their own speed.

Implications for the design and revision of facilities and materials:

This includes consideration of alternative designs of building, furniture and equipment to suit new purposes and to provide possibilities for multiple use and the design, provision and distribution of educational materials to suit new policies and new learning styles.

Implications for policies of assessment and guidance:

This would involve modification of present machinery and structures. The administration of examination systems, for instance, is, in many countries, bureaucratic, inflexible and highly centralised. To be more in tune with the principles of lifelong education, devolution of control, diversification of content and a loosening of restrictive regulations would be indicated.

Provision of a system of guidance to provide an increasing volume of useful information for learners and about them is also implied.

Implications for Costs, Staffing and Training

It would be idle to neglect the financial and manpower implications that such a change of emphasis would imply. The initial re-education of communities to accept new patterns and values together with the building up of the expertise necessary to administer a more flexible system, to produce new materials, devise new assessments, or operate new suggestions of guidance presents a very alarming challenge - though slightly less so once one accepts that it all may be done gradually and unevenly. Yet if our new perspective is as important and as desirable as has been implied in these discussions and our present emphasis as wasteful and irrelevant as many would claim, it is worth considering whether systems can really afford not to invest in the machinery and manpower needed to initiate a change of direction.

IV. TEACHERS AND TEACHER PREPARATION

Of all the factors necessary to the implementation of new approaches to the curriculum, the reorientation of teachers is probably the most important, was so recognised by the seminar and is thus discussed here in some detail.

Who Teaches?

The ideas of lifelong education and of basic education clearly suggest possibilities of a very much wider interpretation of the term teacher and a radical redefinition of the teacher's role.

The principles that all teachers must be educated and professionally trained to a minimum standard of entry to a profession, that teachers should "teach" full time, usually in schools, must be questioned. For many alternatives are possible, many would appear more practicable in developing countries, and some are already being tried. These include the use of different patterns in the teaching learning relationship where a master teacher and his assistants deal with a flexible pattern of group organisation in, say, the teaching of basic communication skills. They include the use of animators and co-learners in conjunction with the mass media. They include the use of part time teachers of various kinds, from the volunteer offering his services in teaching basic skills in the evenings or at weekends, to the craftsman, the farmer, the local health worker or the local musician prepared to share his knowledge or skill with children or youth either in the school or at his place of work.

New Roles for School Teachers and New Insights into Their Training

Yet although new patterns of teaching and new kinds of teachers are consonant with the goals of lifelong education, their success will depend on the goodwill of teachers at present in the system. Nor should we lose sight of the fact that the trained full time teacher will continue to remain central to the education of children in schools. Consequently the understanding and acceptance of the ideas of lifelong education by teachers in training is an essential preliminary to change.

To achieve such understanding in most countries requires some very radical rethinking of programmes of teacher education for, too often, these remain inflexible, academic, overloaded and isolated from the real issues in both schools and the community. Thus, "Conditions in which teachers are trained should be profoundly changed so that, essentially, they become educators rather than specialists in transmitting pre-established curricula".[3]

Yet although we can recognise such weaknesses it is equally important to set them in the social and educational contexts which are partly responsible for them. Colleges are overcrowded, lack sufficient qualified staff, lack money and materials. Teachers in the field are overworked, isolated and undervalued. Pressures on both from quantitative expansion, from inflation, and from the often unreasonable demands of the "curriculum mongers" - seeking radical changes in school programmes virtually overnight - are enormous. It follows, therefore, that if we are to suggest to teachers that they rethink their roles in the perspective of lifelong education, we must do so in the full recognition of the difficult task they perform and with the realisation that demands upon them for change cannot be unreasonable.

Nevertheless the identification of desirable directions of change for teachers and the institutions which prepare them is both necessary and possible.

Teachers could evolve:

Towards becoming more aware of the importance of lifelong education and of its characteristics.

Towards developing skills and attitudes which enhance their own educability and help them develop educability in learners.

Towards becoming more capable of learning on their own, better able to organise and evaluate their own learning and better able to help others to do so.

Towards becoming more capable of inter-learning, both giving and receiving help from others, and becoming more able to help pupils do likewise.

Towards becoming more aware of ways of learning and resources available outside the school; of the school's role and limitation as one of a number of sources of learning.

Towards becoming more flexible, adaptable and self reliant in respect both of learning and living and better able to encourage these qualities in others.

Towards setting a better example as lifelong learners.

But in order to achieve such directions of change, institutions preparing teachers need, themselves, to evolve towards new approaches to the content and methodology they select and towards new patterns and structures. Possible characteristics of such institutions are categorised in Table 2.

Already institutions exist exhibiting many of the characteristics categorised in Table 2 - excellent examples being the Ecoles Normales Régionales in Senegal, but in many cases effective progress towards these ends (accepted by nearly everyone as being desirable) is hampered by present curricula and methods, large portions of which have to be excised if the sort of flexibility implied in the model is to be achieved. Such excisions would provoke violent opposition from the forces of educational conservatism.

Different Modes of Teacher Preparation

A final insight is afforded if we consider the modes of teacher preparation conventionally referred to as "pre-service" and "in-service". In the perspective of lifelong education the distinction between the two is less easy to justify, especially if it brings with it the implication, still frequently accepted, that "pre-service" training should absorb the major investment in time and money, leaving "in-service" activities as a means of topping up or "refreshing" teachers.

In fact the first stage of teacher education can be seen to stand in the same relation to the career-long process as the basic cycle does to lifelong education. Like it, it can serve to promote "teacher educability". Like it there can be and are being developed many patterns and paths including various forms of initial preparation linked to internship as in Jamaica;sandwich courses as in Northern Nigeria; or multi-media courses as in Lebanon or Jordan. No comprehensive survey exists of recent attempts, particularly in developing countries, to build flexibility and diversity into the process of teacher preparation

Table 2

The Role of a Teachers College in the Perspective of Lifelong Education

Curriculum – content

1. Helps students become aware of the need for lifelong learning.
2. Helps them identify and understand the characteristics of lifelong education and apply it to their own teaching, their own learning in college and their own lives.
3. Helps them „learn how to learn"
    - (i) through development of a wide range of basic skills and intellectual abilities;
    - (ii) through familiarisation with a number of learning strategies;
    - (iii) through exposure to a variety of methods and media;
    - (iv) through helping them to plan their own learning.
4. Enables students to become aware of the wide range of areas of learning, their interrelatedness and the importance of each in the development of the whole individual; emphasizes the application of these concepts to the school curriculum.
5. Includes study of the community and the learning processes within it and encourages students to make similar investigations in respect of the communities served by schools in which they work.
6. Integrates learning in the college with other forms of learning in the community, e.g. health, agriculture and political programmes and encourages students to make similar links in their schools.
7. Links family, school and college learning together as part of the same process.
8. Links the content of pre-service and in-service training together in a continuum.

Curriculum – methodology

1. Maintains flexibility within learning groups and within college programmes and helps students maintain such flexibility within schools.
2. Emphasizes development of skills and attitudes in individual students both in college and in respect of pupils in schools.
3. Emphasizes the very great range of human and material sources and resources for learning available and encourages students to use these in their teaching.

Curriculum — evaluation

1. Maintains a very flexible system of evaluation employing a variety of modes and techniques and trains students to use these in schools.
2. Emphasizes continually the importance of self-evaluation and encourages students to develop this quality in their pupils.

Structures and organisation

1. Maintains a flexible timetable structure within the college — placing great importance in the informal curriculum.
2. Relates very closely with programmes in schools and other educational institutions.
3. Plans the provision of pre-service and in-service teacher education and training as part of the same process.
4. Maintains close planning links between college and community in respect of the life and work in the community and also of other programmes of teaching and learning being undertaken. Such links may include the offer of joint training facilities for school teachers and other community educators, or the joint use of college buildings.

Staffing

1. Employs staff knowedgeable and committed to ideals of lifelong education.
2. Facilitates exchange of staff beteween college, schools, other community education schemes.
3. Invites workers in the community into college as teachers and demonstrators and encourages students to make use of similar teachers in their schools.

and the seminar believed that such a survey could be very usefully undertaken.

NOTES

1. "Meeting of Experts on the Basic Cycle of Study, Paris Unesco-House, 24-29 June 1974. Final Report". ED-74/CONF. 622/5. Paris: UNESCO, 1974, pp. 9.
2. These definitions originate from a Working Paper provided by Dr. R. H. Dave for a Unesco Institute meeting on Curriculum Evaluation in 1974.
3. *Learning to Be*, p. 217.

4 DIRECTIONS OF CHANGE

This final chapter records the last two days of the seminar, a time when the members took a second look at the concept of lifelong education, asking themselves whether the idea itself still appeared to them to have relevance to future educational development and if so what actions could be taken within the systems and the institutions represented. For theoretical acceptance of a principle without commitment to doing something about it can be an attractive option when resources are scarce and a system overloaded.

Three days of wrestling with the concepts had left members even more convinced of the richness and power of the ideas but with an even greater appreciation of their complexity, of differences in the ways they could be applied, of the dangers of misunderstanding and misuse, of the financial and administrative implications implied in certain areas of acceptance but chiefly of the immense problems inherent in changing attitudes and overcoming resistance to ideas which often run in almost direct contradiction to established policies in education. For many years systems have been striving towards lengthening cycles of formal schooling; centralisation of school curricula; increasing initial periods of teacher preparation eliminating all uncertified teachers from school.

Now, suddenly, all these are being called to question. Hasty implementation of new policies not fully accepted or understood could lead to disillusionment and eventual rejection, making any future steps very difficult to take.

The Role of Institutions

For different participants and different institutions represented at the seminar, different perspectives and different roles naturally emerged, for those involved in the consideration of policy changes in the education system as a whole, for the curriculum centres, for research institutes, and for institutions for teacher education whose spheres of interest and influence are somewhat more restricted. Often such restricted responsibility seems very much "out of tune" with the wide and interrelated nature of the issues being considered. If the policies of a curriculum development centre are not, for instance, very closely linked to those of the teacher training or the evaluation system, then the curriculum plan, the methods through which it is interpreted and the evaluation of it will lack coherence. If professional and administrative policies are out of gear with one another, then the intention to provide a more flexible programme of different teaching materials or a new approach to evaluation may well founder. If different forms of education are differently planned and managed, costly overlapping will occur.

These problems exist and were voiced by seminar members, but they are problems of which nations are well aware. The intention to coordinate efforts is present and could be reinforced by seminar members through the individual influence they exercise as members of committees and working parties involved in wider policy planning. In many countries the means are already established, as in the curriculum developing centre in Uganda which is responsible for adult and school programmes alike.

Taking First Steps Forward

Once there exists some form of commitment towards the idea of lifelong education, even though the commitment may extend no further than a wish to examine the implications of the idea, two related processes are necessary. The first is to take a look into the future, as any planner does, identifying and clarifying goals, weighing implications and considering alternative strategies. The second is to consider present situations, present resources, present achievements and necessary and attainable "steps forward" which can lead along the path which is considered desirable. Such steps towards better understanding of lifelong education and its implications and towards considering and effecting the changes implied in these understandings were considered by seminar members from the perspective of their own systems, the problems they faced and sought to overcome and the role of the institutions represented within these systems. Four categories of action were identified: (I) *diffusion and discussion of the new ideas*; (II) *research* (including fundamental and applied research, action research and survey work); (III) *development projects*, referring to trial projects conducted on a limited scale and subject to formative evaluation, modification and possible wider diffusion; (IV) *limited changes*, involving smaller or larger scale changes in policy and practice which contribute in some degreee towards better realisation of the goals of lifelong education. The four categories are now considered briefly in the perspective of the countries and institutions represented.

I. DIFFUSION AND DISCUSSION

It takes time to think out and argue out new approaches. Hasty commitment to ideas and hasty policies for action are liable to rebound on the policy maker. Unless a critical mass of people involved in the provision and receiving of education have an understanding and commitment both to the ideas of lifelong education and to transforming these ideas into action, these ideas will remain, as they do now, on paper rather than in practice.

What's to Discuss

At any level at which they are discussed the ideas need to be approached as concretely as possible. A clarification of what we mean by lifelong education needs necessarily to be followed by other specific questions. How may these new ideas affect "our" role? (as curriculum workers, teachers, administrators). How might they affect wider issues in edcuation (e.g. structures) and would these, too, have implications on "our" work? What resources would be needed to implement them? What means are available? What knowledge is available of present practices? Who needs to be convinced and how?

Table 3

Directions of Change (Based on Experience from Algeria)

Indicators	**Problems to Solve**
I. Flexibility	**a) In relation to educational systems**
	1) Incompatibility of school and non-formal systems of education
	2) Direct transfer of formal academic practices to non-formal education
	3) No sharing of methods and means between formal and non-formal education
	b) In relation to communities
	1) Importance attached to scholastic awards
	2) Limiting the right to benefit from education to certain fixed age groups attending formal schools
	c) In relation to teaching
	1) Rigidity of curricula, their strongly theoretical, formal and factual character
	2) Predominance of teacher-centred instruction
	3) Over-emphasis of oral and written media
II. Diversity	a) Over-emphasis on central control of educational structures and functions
	b) Over-emphasis placed on bureaucratic regulations
III. Integration	a) Compartmentalization both within the educational system itself and at administrative and political levels
	b) Friction, criticism, opposition and waste in the management of education

Possible Solutions

- a) 1) Stressing the unity of the whole educational system
    - 2) Stressing the use of activities outside the educational system as alternative modes of education
    - 3) Stressing the qualities that all socio-educational resources have in common

- b) 1) Increased recognition of qualifications gained outside school
    - 2) Recognition of the right of every adult to resume his studies when he wishes to, using school and outside resources

- c) 1) Towards reshaping the curriculum with the intention of making it more varied more practical and more economical
    - 2) Activity methods and group work to be more widespread
    - 3) Introduction of technological processes and studies in real life situations and with the help of skilled technologists

- a) Decentralise and encourage flexibility in structures and curriculum. Give local power to initiate and develop particular schemes
- b) Promote intercommunication between different levels of authority in order to achieve maximum technical, methodological, and material assistance
- a) Desire to integrate the purposes of school and out-of-school activities for the same educational purpose and under the same aegis
- b) Setting up decentralised structures to integrate educational, economic and political power which must be exercised in an atmosphere of collective discussion necessary to solve educational problems including those outside the school

The more homogeneous the group the more specific discussion can be. Clearly a group of textbook writers or an examination panel may come to far more narrow and practical conclusions than a high level meeting such as the Hamburg seminar, but discussion and diffusion need to take place at all levels, for all are involved.

Who Needs to Discuss?

Policy Level

Diffusion activities were identified at various levels. At the highest and most general level they would include seminars and policy meetings sponsored in ministries or by universities as in Indonesia and Malaysia and wide forums for public discussion bringing together the various bodies or organisations actively involved in, or having a potential for, lifelong education. Such a conference was planned in Mauritius as a follow up to the Hamburg seminar bringing together schools, teachers and teacher trainers, agricultural extension and nutrition officers, health workers and the cooperative movement, village development officers and industrial social workers, family planners and youth club organisers as well as representatives from the press and from broadcasting.

Such general discussion might be of particular value in identifying what problems need to be overcome within an educational system and the general directions of response which might be taken. Table 3 represents one such categorisation made during the seminar by two of its members in respect of one country (Algeria).

Institutional Level

Within *curriculum centres* a variety of forms of discussion are possible and desirable. Working parties of curriculum workers should examine the ideas themselves and their implications on the related aspects of curriculum development, from the setting of objectives through the selection and organisation of content to evaluation and diffusion. Implied in this activity is the need to take a hard look at current curricular policies for it is as important to identify practices which do not contribute towards lifelong education as it is to recognise those which do. In this respect it is appropriate also that priorities be considered. A particular curricular activity e.g. a New Mathematics programme for the basic cycle of studies may be justifiable if we look at it in isolation (because it develops many desirable skills and thought processes) but far less easy to support when the time and effort it demands are set against the alternative ways in which that time and effort may be deployed.

From the curriculum centre as a base, discussions can be widened to include all other agencies currently providing education but hitherto never brought into the debate: adult extension workers, vocational trainers, religious teachers and many others. Proposals by Mauritius have already been mentioned. and it is significant that nearly all curriculum development centres represented reported moves towards such wider diffusion and discussion of new directions in education.

Teacher preparation at all levels is another area where diffusion and discussion is needed. It may take place within programmes of initial training, and in this respect the production of suitable teaching material either separately or as part of redesigned Education courses is highly desirable. Discussion on lifelong education may also be the subject of special in-service seminars for a variety of groups such as teachers, administrators, teacher trainers or supervisors. But there is every reason, also, for discussion to be initiated within existing in-service programmes, for whatever is under consideration, be it language teaching, the use of audio-visual aids or school administration, the concept of lifelong education offers a new perspective to the subject and adds something to its purpose.

The use of *mass media* as part of the diffusion process was considered desirable and possible in almost every country. Radio, television, and the press are powerful instruments for raising a public debate but are also increasingly used for the re-education of teachers. It would be particularly valuable if radio scripts could be designed nationally, or possibly even internationally, to present the issues clearly and forcefully with a view to leading on to more local discussion.

International Aspects of Diffusion

It is essential too that a continued flow of information should take place between countries as well as within them. The Unesco Institute plays a useful role in this respect and its proposed publication of a series of case studies on lifelong education represents a modest contribution in this field.

SUMMARY

Possible diffusion activities are identified as:

(1) Setting up national commissions and discussion groups.

(2) Public seminars involving wide membership bringing together many separate interests involved in education.

(3) Structured and detailed discussions within curriculum development centres and indicated by them for wider groups of education workers.

(4) Discussion within in-service teacher education courses (new materials are needed).

(5) Discussion within in-service training of teachers in a variety of contexts.

(6) Discussion provoked by the mass media, aimed both at educational workers and the wider community (design of scripts necessary).

(7) Exchange of information at an international level, through case studies as well as more general reports.

II. RESEARCH

An important aspect of the initial process of discussion is the identification of areas in each system where information is lacking and may be collected, together with consideration of who might collect it, through what means and methods and how they may use it once it is available.

Two aspects in particular were identified, the *context* and the *means* for change. In each case it was stressed that information could be collected at a variety of different levels from the full time research worker engaged in fundamental research to the individual teacher or student working within a local community.

The Context for Change

The need to undertake evaluation of current curricula from a new viewpoint has already been mentioned. Objectives, content, methods, materials and evaluation procedures may all be subjected to scrutiny. Equally important are studies of the society itself, of languages used and attitudes to them, of motivational structures within societies, attitudes to individual or group achievement, of learning styles traditionally used and attitudes towards the acquisition of knowledge.

To the more abstract studies listed above must be added the collection and synthesis of information about what is actually happening within the society: what forms of education are at present being employed, especially in the non-formal sector; who provides them and for whom; how widely they are known about and by whom; and how they are regarded. The collection of such information is as valuable at the local as it is at the national level. A teacher or student who undertakes a study of the styles and forms of learning present within a local society not only advances the growth of knowledge through adding to it a dimension which only his personal experience can achieve, but also increases his own awareness and receptiveness towards lifelong education.

The Means of Change

Information needs to be collected about the resources within communities (and they are considerable) together with appraisals of the facilities available for coordination and cooperation between separate educational facilities and an examination of possible "points of entry" from which change could be initiated. As previously indicated, such studies are applicable both for a national committee or national institute but equally so for local colleges or local "development committees".[1]

International Aspects of Research

Information whose value extends beyond national systems needs to be shared and some (though not sufficient) facilities exist for this purpose. The role of institutions like the African Bureau of Educational Sciences has already been mentioned. The Unesco Institute in Hamburg also has a role both in acting as a clearing house and in making available research reports of its own projects. Its current work on Lifelong Education and Evaluation of School Curriculum clearly has considerable relevance.

SUMMARY

Research activities are both possible and desirable at many levels. They may include:

(1) Studies of the context for lifelong education including re-examination of all aspects of current curricula and studies of ways of learning, attitudes to learning and alternative paths to learning within present societies.

(2) Studies of the means of change, including resources, facilities for coordination and possible points of entry.

(3) International cooperation in reporting projects and findings (a role for the Unesco Institute).

III. DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

Although countries are rightly wary of embarking upon widespread changes in education without trial or evaluation, they are often willing to invest in experimental projects. This willingness increases as disillusionment with current patterns of education grows. The advantage of a development project is that it allows for a relatively fundamental change to be put into effect fairly quickly and without very great commitment. Its disadvantage lies in the fact that the more sweeping the change the more difficult it may be to replicate. Development projects take many forms and could involve the following:

(1) *Various forms of vertical or horizontal integration of educational facilities within a limited area.*

The development school project in Indonesia provides a good example as do community education projects within Tanzania.[2] The prospect of resettlement or opening up new lands as in the Pahang Tengarra Development Project in Malaysia offers an excellent opportunity of setting up an operating model free from the restraints of current organisational patterns.

(2) *Trial curricula, materials and media (including curricula for teacher preparation).*

Possibilities for alternat.ve patterns are very wide, ranging from limited schemes of subject integration to whole scale remodelling of curricula for particular levels. Within countries represented a wide variety of projects are under way, which, though not necessarily conceived directly in response to the idea of lifelong education nevertheless embody many of its principles. The Namutamba rural education project in Uganda has already been mentioned; on a much larger scale are the trial programmes developed by the IPAR[3] in the Cameroon. In Kenya curricula are being developed aimed towards increasing the development of those practical manipulative skills so necessary to enhance the educability of the rural child.

Various trial programmes of teacher education exist including a very significant international project based on the Unesco Institute in which six teachers' colleges in five countries (including two institutions in India and one from Singapore) have introduced experimental curricula in varied forms and are attempting to evaluate change in performance and attitudes of their students as a result.

Additional alternative possibilities exist for the controlled trial of various forms of educational media from books to radio and television aimed towards developing educability, changing learning styles and promoting integration. Some developmental work exists here in Indonesia and the Philippines (coordinated by the SEAMEO regional centre INNOTECH[4]) where effective low cost means for mass primary education are being examined.

Development schemes involving the trial of alternative methods of assessment are also possible, but however educationally desirable these may be, they are likely to encounter social and political pressure and may consequently prove difficult to launch.

SUMMARY

Development schemes (involving limited trial and evaluation of new approaches) are desirable and many are in operation. Schemes can profitably concentrate on:

(1) Integration of educational opportunities for different categories of learners - dealing with limited numbers of limited geographical areas.

(2) Curricular innovations of various kinds - involving trial programmes, new approaches to materials and media, new patterns of assessment, new approaches to the preparation of teachers.

IV. LIMITED CHANGES

Once the idea of lifelong education is accepted as a desirable direction of change (rather than as an alternative which must be accepted or rejected) then the identification of steps along the desired path is possible. Such steps may be long or short and may legitimately be made by those who have little intention of travelling down the whole road.

Many instances were cited of steps already taken and many suggestions made of further limited changes that were both desirable and possible. In the short time available no attempt was made to be exhaustive, neither does the list which follows purport to include everything reported at the seminar; but it does indicate the very wide range of actions possible. It will be noted that each of the changes suggested involves making a larger or smaller policy decision and, usually, the provision of finance and personnel to a greater or lesser degree. In many cases taking the decision involves the replacing or curtailment of some other structure or activity within the existing system. For example if it were considered desirable for teachers in training each to make a special study of opportuni-

Table 4

Some Limited Changes

Direction of Change

Promoting a Debate

1. Setting up national seminars, national commissions and study groups.
2. Setting up local study groups or their equivalent.
3. Allocating time and resources for the study of lifelong education in schools, colleges and in-service programmes.
4. Writing, translating, producing, recommending books, units of study, radio programmes.

Setting up machinery to plan and coordinate

1. Devising integrated structures for planning education at national, local or curriculum centre level.

— alternatively —

2. Promoting coordinating machinery at the same levels (usually through board or committee structure).

Facilitating the gathering of information

1. Setting up machinery and funding research at various levels relevant to basic education and lifelong education.
2. Allocating time and resources to such study within school and teacher education programmes.

Example of a step towards this*

1. National seminar held (Malaysia).
2. Discussions promoted with teachers union, local education offers, local government and community organisations (Indonesia).
3. Insertion of a unit "lifelong education" in Principles of Education syllabus in teachers colleges to promote both discussion and practical action.
4. Production of a local edition of "readings" i.e. from **Learning To Be** and UIE monographs.

1. Structure of Ministry revised to incorporate wider functions (Algeria). Curriculum centre set up with responsibilities for both school and adult education (Uganda).

2. Coordinating board set up for all out-of-school education (Kenya)

1. University Institute undertakes to prepare an inventory of alternative learning systems within the community (Nigeria).
2. Report on ,,education within my local community" required of all teachers in training and evaluated.

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* Where examples given reflect a step actively taken, the relevant country is cited. In other cases examples are taken from proposals made by seminar members.

Promoting desirable curriculum change in basic education

1. Evaluating current curricula in the light of the goals of lifelong education.
2. Formulating and issuing statements of objectives.
3. Accepting elements of flexibility, diversity and integration within curriculum plans, teaching and learning styles and use of teaching and learning materials — in place of a more rigid official programme of studies.
4. Promoting desirable changes in evaluation policies and techniques.

Accepting alternative structures in the school system

1. Promoting flexibility in time, age and stage particulary in respect of basic education.
2. Promoting structural links between school and adult education.

Modifying programmes of teacher education

1. Modifying curricula.
2. Accepting alternative structures.

1. Re-evaluation of goals of primary education undertaken by Ministry of Education (Fiji).
2. Formal statement issued on the role of the school in relation to the local community (Zambia).
3. (i) Unit structure in primary science replaces formal syllabus.
   - (ii) Individualised reading scheme developed and recommended.
   - (iii) Children's magazine published regularly (Saudi Arabia).
   - (iv) School and community join in programmes of community work (Iraq)
   - (v) TV programmes of educational value e.g. health, designed for viewing together by different age groups (Kuwait).
4. (i) Standardised tests for reading developed (Ghana).
   - (ii) Diversified forms of pupil evaluation in place of a single form of evaluation through examination accepted.
   - (iii) Self-evaluation materials developed in mathematics

1. (i) Two year alternative programme of basic education for older learners initated (Iraq).
   - (ii) Ungraded elementary school developed (Saudi Arabia).
2. (i) School buildings used for adults. Adults from the community invited into the school to teach special skills (Uganda).
   - (ii) "Rural education centres" used for basic education through radio (Pakistan).

1. College curricula redesigned to reflect greater emphasis on skill training, individual and inter-learning.
2. (i) New flexible programmes of teacher improvement initiated (Afghanistan).
   - (ii) Advisory centres for teachers opened (Kenya).
   - (iii) Entry into teachers colleges made possible for community teachers other than school teachers (Ghana).

ties for and attitudes to education in their local community, some of the conventional factual content of Education courses would have to be omitted to allow for this activity to be performed satisfactorily.

A selection of actions taken or recommended by seminar members is summarised in Table 4.

SUMMARY

Once desirable directions of change have been established towards facilitating lifelong education a number of steps towards these directions may be taken, great or small according to the needs of the system and the constraints operating against change.

Each step represents observable progress and leads on towards the next one, but every step requires an administrative decision and usually some human and financial investment.

Steps have been identified towards:

(1) Promoting a debate.
(2) Setting up machinery to plan and coordinate.
(3) Facilitating the gathering of information.
(4) Promoting desirable curriculum change in basic education.
(5) Accepting alternative structures in the school system.
(6) Modifying programmes of teacher education.

Conclusion

Participants met to share ideas. There was no intention that this seminar should efficiently recommend policy changes or issue resolutions. Some modest commitments were, however, made. The Hamburg Institute would continue its diffusion activities through publication of results of its ongoing projects and possibly through regional meetings or seminars linking countries with similar problems. Participating countries undertook to keep the Institute aware of new activities and in particular of suitable subjects for its case studies. Additional immediate diffusion activities would also be organised by many countries following the seminar.

Yet the most important result of the week was that just a little more clarity had been given to a very significant but very complicated idea and its importance as a *master concept* further clarified. On the one hand it was realised that a sudden and dramatic change of policy towards an educational system based on the principles of lifelong education was hardly likely to be feasible in developing countries. Quite apart from the quite staggering implications, on manpower, money, materials and reform, and the fact that the resistance of educational conservatism must be slowly and painfully broken down over the years, there was the further realisation that since the ability to profit from lifelong education depends on the attitude in a learning society and the attitudes of individuals within that society, it is not merely a matter of governments providing new educational opportunities but equally of individuals and groups seeking and wanting to seek further enlightenment. No single stroke of government policy will achieve this. Commitment to the idea is bound to be piecemeal, partial and slow.

But at the same time it was realised that earlier scepticism about the adaptability of ideas of lifelong education in developing countries was equally misplaced. Arguments that the concept was too vague, too utopian, too costly to prove of practical value held little validity once the meaning of master concept was fully grasped, one we began talking of new directions, new perspectives, individual initiatives and modest realisable changes rather than great grandiose revisions of policies.

Indeed to return at the end of this report to the great educational problems cited in Chapter 1 (pages 9 to 14), perhaps in every instance the perspective of lifelong education was seen to have added just a little light to their solution.

This is because the new perspective contributes towards breaking down categories in society by giving individuals the will and means to break out of them, towards developing new and more rational definitions of quality and relevance and, finally, towards a notion of efficiency which uses more resources better.

And as for the wider and more universal human problems, is it not reasonable to suppose that in a world beset by crises which in the final analysis must be solved by the will and the efforts of individuals and groups within societies rather than by political rhetoric, an educational orientation which invites learners to go forth and look for solutions is more likely to provide salvation than one which suggests that they troop hopefully to school in the expectation that governments will there feed them with all the answers.

NOTES

1. Already the establishment of such committees is underway or under discussion in many areas, e.g. in Finland, and individual country reports from participants stressed repeatedly the need for such coordination facilities at local level.

2. See description of the Ruvuma Development Project in H. Houghton & P. Tregear *Community Schools in Developing Countries*. Hamburg: Unesco Institute for Education, 1969. A film "Community Schools in Tanzania" has also recently be released by the Tanzanian Ministry of Information.
3. Instituts de Pédagogie Appliquée à Vocation Rurale.
4. The Regional Centre of Educational Innovation and Technology in Saigon set up by the South East Asian Ministers of Education Organisation.

APPENDIX A

SOME CONCEPT CHARACTERISTICS OF LIFELONG EDUCATION

Twenty concept characteristics have been tentatively identified by R. H. Dave and were first published in Monograph 1 in this series, *Lifelong Education and School Curriculum* (pp. 14-25). They are reproduced here since they formed an important basis for discussions during the seminar.

1. *The three basic terms upon which the meaning of the concept is based are "life", "lifelong" and "education". The meaning attached to these terms and the interpretation given to them largely determine the scope and meaning of lifelong education.*

These terms that constitute the composite term "lifelong education" require detailed elucidation. The terms "life" and "education" are themselves very comprehensive and multidimensional. The variation in the meaning of these terms in different societies and at different times results in various modalities in the operational meaning of lifelong education. Also, the view held regarding the relationship between education and learning is very crucial. This determines the differences, if any, between life-long education and lifelong learning. The term "lifelong" is very significant as it indicates the time-span of learning. Lifelong education begins with the beginning of life and ends with the end of life. It subsumes all stages and aspects of human development and the varied roles that individuals have to play at each stage.

2. *Education does not terminate at the end of formal schooling but it is a lifelong process. Lifelong education covers the entire life-span of an individual.*

Education should no longer be treated as synonymous with formal schooling, as is often done in practice, perhaps inadvertently. Furthermore, formal education acquired during childhood and youth is not adequate to save oneself from professional as well as cultural obsolescence during the later period in life. The need for extending the process of socialisation throughout the period of life in a planned manner is becoming more acute. Extension of education throughout the life-span has also become essential to reduce the inter-generational gap that has emerged as another new problem in a swiftly changing society. There is also a problem of the intra-generational gap which is the consequence of unequal educational opportunities and other factors. This can also be taken care of to a large extent by making education open and non-terminal. This is not to say that formal education does not stop till the last day of the individual's life. This only implies that the attitude and habit of lifelong learning are to be inculcated in people and a learning environment is to be generated in the society so that it is transformed into a learning and growing society. Formal learning is not going to be continuous, but it is the access to learning at any time in the life of an individual according to the felt need that really matters.

3. *Lifelong education is not confined to adult education but it encompasses and unifies all stages of education - pre-primary, primary, secondary and so forth. Thus it seeks to view education in its totality.*

It is often stated that lifelong education begins when formal education in school or university is completed and that it is for adults alone. There is a historical reason why lifelong education is viewed by some as a programme of continuing learning during adulthood. However, the view that lifelong education includes all stages of education is now widely accepted.

4. *Lifelong education includes both formal and non-formal patterns of education, planned as well as incidental learning.*

Education according to this element of the concept is no longer confined to institutionalised learning. It includes all stages, aspects and situations of personally and socially desired learning and thus attains the widest possible meaning. Out-of-school education is an integral part of total education. In essence, this concept includes the whole continuum of situations for purposeful learning ranging from well-planned and institutionalised learning to non-institutionalised and incidental learning.

5. *The home plays the first, most subtle and crucial role in initiating the process of lifelong learning. This continues throughout the entire life-span of an individual through a process of family learning.*

The interaction between the members of the family constellation, the home management, the life style of the family and other factors constituting the educational environment in the home are very important in lifelong education. In fact, the home, a primary social institution, becomes an educative agency which initiates the learning process and continues it throughout the lifetime of an individual who finds himself in different roles and configurations as time passes.

6. *The community also plays an important role in the system of lifelong education right from the time the child begins to interact with it, and continues its educative function both in professional and general areas throughout life.*

The term "community" is very comprehensive. It includes neighbourhood, peer groups, kinship groups, socio-cultural and political groups, professional groups, trade unions, and so forth. It also includes industries, commercial enterprises, public administration and all other places of work where the individual continues to learn in a planned or incidental manner. Similarly, religious institutions, and organisations for social welfare are included under the community. The media for mass communication such as newspapers, radio and TV are also a part of the community that have a vital share in the process of lifelong education. Thus the whole range of social structures is brought into play in providing a vast variety of learning systems for every member of the community to develop himself and participate creatively in the development of others.

7. *The institutions of education like schools, universities and training centres are of course important, but only as one of the agencies for lifelong education. They no longer enjoy the monopoly for educating the people and can no longer exist in isolation from other educative agencies in the society.*

Thus formal schooling is only a part of total education and, as such, it has to be integrated with other educative agencies and activities. The aspirations of lifelong education cannot be fully realised without eliciting the active participation of a variety of potentially educative agencies existing outside the special institutions established for education such as the school. This position calls for the reinterpretation of the role of the specially contrived system of education including schools, universities, and other institutions of formal education vis-à-vis other educative agencies. Such an analysis is important for identifying the relative and complementary functions of the so-called formal and informal systems of education in the perspective of lifelong learning.

8. *Lifelong education seeks continuity and articulation along the vertical or longitudinal dimension.*

Each stage of human life involves learning so that optimum growth and a sense of fulfilment for that stage in life are attained. It further attempts to prepare for the next stage(s) and for accomplishing a higher quality of personal, social, and professional life. To achieve these purposes, continuity and articulation along the vertical dimension of education are essential.

9. *Lifelong education also seeks integration at its horizontal and depth dimensions at every stage in life.*

For any particular stage in life, integration between the physical, intellectual, affective and spiritual aspects of life is necessary for full development of personality. Such an integration is also required for performing personal, social, and professional roles in a harmonious manner and for taking care of all tasks ranging from the simplest to the most complex ones in an optimally effective manner.

10. *Contrary to the elitist form of education, lifelong education is universal in character. It represents democratisation of education.*

Education, according to the new construct, is no longer the prerogative for a few. Equality of access to education for all is provided at any stage in life, the chief criterion of eligibility being one's capacity to profit from it. During the past several decades the main effort the world over was to universalise primary education. In the new educational scene, efforts will have to be made to universalise lifelong education. In these efforts lie the seeds of democratisation of education and the consequent fulfilment of an important human right. This ideal might call for a different strategy for technologically less advanced countries compared to that of the others.

11. *Lifelong education is characterised by its flexibility and diversity in content, learning tools and techniques, and time of learning.*

A system of lifelong education breaks away from a monolithic, uniform, and rigid system of education. It allows learning to take place at one's own pace and time and according to one's own areas of interest. It responds to the diverse needs and circumstances of individuals. As knowledge expands and new skills develop, diversity in the content and form of learning increases and the process of learning becomes individualised and self-directed. As one acquires skills and understanding about one's own learning, one moves towards self-learning and self-directed learning. Even in the programme of group-learning, which will be needed for specific purposes, the individual participates to an increasing degree in deciding the content and tools of learning. Rigid entry requirements, formal certificates, and such other things that come in the way of allowing individuals to pursue their new interests and develop their full potentiality are to be replaced by a flexible, unrestrictive, and open education system.

12. *Lifelong education is a dynamic approach to education which allows adaptation of materials and media of learning as and when new developments take place.*

Lifelong education is geared to the needs of a changing society. It is sensitive to change and absorbs new developments in the content of learning as well as in educational technology. It enables individuals to adapt themselves to the changing world and also prepares them for creative participation in the process of change. This characteristic is closely connected with the qualities of flexibility and diversity of lifelong education.

13. *Lifelong education allows alternative patterns and forms of acquiring education.*

This characteristic is again intimately linked with the characteristics of flexibility, diversity, and dynamism. In order to make lifelong education a practical reality, alternative ways of acquiring education are necessary in place of the full-time, institutionalised and teacher-centred form of learning. Recent developments like own-time learning, sandwich programmes, evening classes, week-end courses, newspaper courses, correspondence courses, open universities, radio and TV courses, video-taped lessons, computer-aided instruction and a host of others are examples of alternative patterns of education. Alternative learning strategies such as independent individualised learning by programmed instruction and other techniques, formal and guided learning in small groups on projects, informal learning in small groups like study circles or in large groups like community meetings, and combinations of various learning strategies are examples of alternative forms of acquiring education. Thus, creation of a variety of educational arrangements, application of different learning strategies and adoption of new technologies of communication to suit the educational needs - both known and un-known - of the individual and the society characterise the concept of lifelong education.

14. *Lifelong education has two broad components: general and professional. These components are not completely different from each other but are inter-related and interactive in nature.*

On account of scientific, technological and other advancements, many professions are directly influenced in one form or another. Some other professions are indirectly influenced by these changes. Consequently, new learning is required for maintaining professional efficiency. New job-skills have to be inculcated, new attitudes formed and new understandings acquired as and when such changes come about. But the socio-economic, political and sci-tech changes also influence everyday life, generate a new culture in the society, produce new value systems, change the extent and pattern of leisure, influence life-expectancy, alter life-roles, and so forth. All these call for the development of new life-skills, the modification of beliefs and attitudes from time to time, and the updating of information almost continuously in one aspect of daily life or another. Hence, lifelong education in the general and cultural domain is essential. The quantum and quality of such education depends upon various factors like social and geographical mobility, economic development, and socialisation of technology. Thus, for proper adaptation to the ever-modernising world and for creative participation in a rapidly changing society, both general as well as professional types of lifelong education are becoming increasingly necessary. These may be acquired in a formal or non-formal, planned or incidental manner as the case may be.

15. *The adaptive and innovative functions of the individual and the society are fulfilled through lifelong education.*

Lifelong learning, in its varying levels of complexity, has always existed since the dawn of the human race for the fulfilment of an adaptive function. Man, at any point in history, required continuation of learning on account of biological and environmental and external changes that brought new life problems for adaptation and survival. Any amount of formal education during childhood and youth was never sufficient to take care of the educative function throughout life. The process of lifelong learning in some form was therefore always operative. Such learning was often unconscious, incidental and problem-oriented. Some societies created various customs, traditions and life-styles to acquire lifelong learning in a more natural and effortless manner. The rapid and incessant changes of the present time have simply accentuated the need for lifelong education since life problems have become more complex and certain problems demand a systematic and multi-disciplinary approach to tackle them. Consequently, a global consciousness has grown for the need of every individual to adapt to social, economic, political, industrial and ecological changes apart from physiological and psychological ones. Adaptation to external forces calls for adjustment in the inner life. Hence, lifelong education is aimed at self-realisation, self-fulfilment, and the fullest development of personality. For this purpose, a passive adaption is obviously not enough. The process requires innovative and creative participation in the enhancement of cultural, professional, and personal growth. The ideal of lifelong education, viewed in the context of the modern world, greatly emphasises the innovative function besides the adaptive one.

16. *Lifelong education carries out a corrective function: to take care of the shortcomings of the existing system of education.*

The present system of education is under serious criticism for its lack of relevance to life, for its lack of meaningfulness for the young, for producing disinterest in learning, for its isolation from the community, for its examination-ridden character, for its indifference to out-of-school experiences and so forth. Lifelong education is expected to act as a corrective measure by merging school and out-of-school education in a horizontal continuum, by linking education in the home, school, and society in a vertical continuum for fullest possible human growth, by making all education participatory as well as preparatory, by paying full regard to the indidual's needs, problems and levels of growth, by reforming the outmoded system of examination, graduation and certification, by stressing learning rather than teaching, and so on.

17. *The ultimate goal of lifelong education is to maintain and improve the quality of life.*

The meaning of the term "quality of life" depends on the value system of a society. It depends upon the political system, concept of the good life, social beliefs and traditions, economic situation, and many other factors. While there are still many differences regarding the notion of the good life and differences in the living conditions in various parts of the world, it is clear that the human community on this "spaceship earth" has in many respects come closer than ever before. This is on account of the new means of transport and communication, the emergence of international organisations and sevrral other factors. It is true that some countries are struggling hard to achieve a basic minimum level of economic growth to improve the sub-standard life of their people whereas some others have a problem of effective utilisation of increasing leisure. Amidst this stark reality of the present day world there exists a universal need for peace, a desire to counteract the dehumanising influence of technology, and an urgent necessity to prevent pollution of air and water which are a common and limited property of all people on this planet irrespective of the territorial boundaries of individual countries. These and many other factors like the population explosion and the indiscriminate exploitation of limited natural resources play a major role in carving out a common core of values representing the quality of human life on this globe. There are of course some variations in certain aspects of life in different parts of the world, but ultimately, the personal and social good of all people has to be achieved and enhanced. Lifelong education, in its ultimate analysis, aims at this lofty ideal.

18. *There are three major prerequisites for lifelong education, namely, opportunity, motivation, and educability.*

Adequate opportunity for both formal and non-formal learning in professional as well as general sectors is an important prerequisite. For many kinds of learning a rich educative environment in the home, community and educational institutions is necessary. Here learning must be as natural and effortless as possible. Apart from incidental learning, a variety of provisions in the form of paid study leave, in-service programmes, on-the-job training, etc. will be necessary to create ample opportunities for learning at any time in life. Once the opportunities are created, the individuals must have a desire to learn. Lifelong education becomes more and more self-education and self-directed education as the person develops himself from stage to stage. A strong will to profit from educational opportunities for all-sided development is therefore an essential ingredient for making lifelong education a practical reality. For this, lifelong education should consider the felt needs of the individuals. The process of education itself should further motivate the learner to continue learning. Educability is the third major prerequisite to achieve the aspirations of lifelong education. Educability is the readiness to profit from learning opportunities. It includes skill in the techniques of learning, ability to plan and implement one's own programme of learning, ability to utilise effectively different tools and media of learning, ability to carry out independent learning with self-reliance and confidence, ability to profit from inter-learning in a group or inducted learning of a formal system, ability to select from and take advantage of a variety of learning strategies and situations, ability for self-evaluation of progress, and so forth. Education, in one sense, becomes a process for the enhancement of educability, and in the other, utilises educability for producing recurrent learning at different stages of life and in diverse areas of growth.

19. *Lifelong education is an organising principle for all education.*

At a theoretical level, the construct of lifelong education provides an organising principle for all education, since it encompasses all levels, forms and contents of education. As a principle, this principle deals first of all with life, where the individual, society and the physical environment are considered. It then deals with development and change throughout the life period, and these include different stages of human development; different aspects of development such as physical, intellectual, social, vocational, etc.; and general as well as unique roles that every individual has to play in different situations and at different times in the life-span. In order to accomplish optimum development and change by educational processes, different foundations and contents of education are considered. All these complex considerations when put together in a cohesive manner provide a theoretical framework for lifelong education.

20. *At the operational level, lifelong education provides a total system of all education.*

Ultimately, the theoretical concept of lifelong education when operationalised provides a comprehensive system of education. This new educational arrangement encompasses all learning systems for the full life-span of every individual. From an operational point of view therefore, lifelong education is conceived as a system of education. This should be the system of all education because of the all-embracing nature of the concept. The system of lifelong education draws its guidelines from its theoretical framework. An operational framework of the system of lifelong education includes a whole complex of goals; assumptions; formal and non-formal patterns of education in the home, school and community; educational management including planning, structures, organisation, finance, etc.; and the entire technology of education including objectives, learning strategies, means and media of learning, evaluation procedures and so on. A theoretical cum operational framework should provide a total perspective for lifelong education.

APPENDIX B

THE BASIC CYCLE OF STUDY

The following extract is reprinted, with permission, from the Final Report of the meeting of seventeen leading educators on "The Basic Cycle of Study", under the chairmanship of Dr. Prem Kirpal (India), held at UNESCO House, Paris, from 24-29 June, 1974 to discuss issues involved in the establishment of a basic cycle of studies, in pursuance of the provisions made in the work plan under resolution 1.221 adopted by the General Conference at its seventeenth session. (Doc. ED-74/CONF. 622/5).

II. THE ORIGINS OF THE NOTION OF A BASIC CYCLE OF EDUCATION

6. The concept of a basic cycle of education has emerged as a response to a need in many countries of the world. The need for a profound transformation in educational systems has been felt in recent years and is reflected in important changes in public policies for education.

7. Until quite recently, education systems were characterized by several successive levels one on top of the other. Because they had been established at different dates, the various levels were mutually independent and self-contained; they had different objectives and they served different social classes. Examinations and other selective procedures served as effective barriers between stages and the student moved up in the system only in so far as his intellectual performance - or the

evaluation made of it - and his social, economical and cultural background permitted. He had no right to education in the full sense of the term. From the start of his school experience his progress was determined by the quality of primary education he happened to receive and by the particular "stream" or ability group to which he was assigned. Academic or general education enjoyed greater prestige than technical or vocational education. This rather simplified description of education as it existed in many countries only a few decades ago, began to change under the influence of several factors.

8. First, the demand for a more democratic provision of education was felt in many countries, where education was seen by the ordinary people as a passport to economic success and social promotion. Citizens claimed education as a right and governments accepted an obligation to provide it more liberally. Democratization was seen as entailing more equal opportunity in terms of access to knowledge and of chances of success. There was increasing pressure for equal opportunities for the children of all socio-economic groups. It was also recognized that equality sometimes called for diversification in order to meet the special needs of groups or individuals or to compensate for the initial handicaps of the under-privileged.

9. A second factor responsible for change was the explosion of knowledge which saw the mass of knowledge doubling every decade, and the need for knowledge in everyday life continually increasing. This led to demands for a longer period of schooling to equip people better for life in a more technological world. It began to be recognized that education should be a continuous process. At this point, the concept of primary

or elementary education gave way to the notion of a basic cycle of education of flexible duration intended to provide enrichment for life in the perspective of life-long education.

10. It should be noted that the concept of a basic cycle of education is linked with the broadly recognised need to provide a stronger basis of general knowledge which will make it possible for the student to profit from vocational training and employment in more complex jobs. It should also help individuals to achieve the occupational mobility rendered necessary by rapidly developing technology and changing occupational profiles. Specialization has therefore to be postponed. Another important part of the concept is that each individual should participate actively in community development and decision-making. Everybody must be adequately prepared to assume their civic responsibilities. Therefore greater emphasis is placed on education for competent and active citizenship.

11. In a large number of countries there has been a long-felt need for a type of basic education which would help society to absorb the products of the education system and do away with the problem of unemployed school leavers.

12. These are some of the factors which have led to the development of the concept of a basic cycle of education. It obviously entails much more than adding a few years of schooling to primary education. The basic cycle embodies new aims which must be reflected in new content, and new approaches to the educational process and new educational structures.

13. Therefore it seems worth while, in the light of the experience of a number of countries, to identify the problems raised by the establishment of a basic cycle in the perspective of life-long education.

III. EVIDENCE AVAILABLE ON THE BASIS OF NATIONAL EXPERIENCES

14. The factors which have led to the formation of the concept of a basic cycle of education and to its adoption by a growing number of countries have been summarized above. It appears that there is a visible trend towards the establishment of such a cycle, the need for which is perceived with varying degrees of awareness and which varies in pattern according to national situations.

15. It goes without saying that the situation of the basic cycle depends upon the policy goals of the countries concerned, upon their educational and cultural traditions, upon the nature of their economy and the available material and human resources. In particular, the concept of a basic cycle has somewhat different connotations according to the specific situation and level of development of countries.

16. But it must be understood that the basic cycle of education cannot be defined mainly in terms of duration, either as a minimum provision or as an addition of a few years of schooling to the provision already in existence. The establishment of a basic cycle implies a will to do away with stratified self-contained levels. It appears that one can speak of the basic cycle of education only if and when specific aims

are clearly conceived and translated in terms of new educational content and structures.

17. While having specific aims, the basic cycle of education is by definition a first phase of the educational process in the perspective of life-long education. It should be seen as part of the whole and to provide education that can be terminal in many cases for the majority of those receiving it while at the same time preparing for further education.

18. If one defines the basic cycle of studies in terms of aims, it appears justified not to restrict it to formal education. The aims which justify its adoption as a first part of the school system, may make it equally necessary to provide for those young people and adults who did not benefit or did not benefit sufficiently from school attendance. Therefore the notion of a basic cycle of education should be interpreted in a broad way as applying to the world of adults as well as of children.

19. Since the basic cycle of education cannot be identified with an extended period of primary education, one should also assume that it is aimed at providing a kind of education different from the traditional type of primary school. It should use considerable flexibility of methods, combine general access and diversity, and tap extensively the various educational resources of the community. It should also closely relate school learning to out-of-school experience, and to the world of work through a two-way relationship between education and society, and be deeply rooted in the social, cultural and physical environment of the child and the adult.

All this tends to suggest a type of education which widely differs from the one usually provided at school.

IV. AIMS OF THE BASIC CYCLE

20. The main aim is to help each man and woman to take charge of his or her own life. For this, the person needs confidence built on competencies and on an introduction to the range of the main ways of human thinking, feeling and expression, as well as some knowledge of his culture and of the social, economic and political controls affecting him (whether or not they seem to lie within his power to influence them).

21. Regarding the latter kinds of knowledge: almost anywhere in the world people gain some knowledge of the culture and controls from their families, neighbours and perhaps from the media. They are much less likely to gain knowledge from these unprofessional sources of how to crack the codes of reading and writing, how to begin to use the language of mathematics, or of how to think at even the simplest level, in a scientific manner. There are, additionally, two other major areas of thinking and feeling, aesthetics and ethics, which may be accessible from the social group, but commonly in only very restricted or in prescriptive forms.

22. These areas, applied to living in the world to which each person belongs, constitute the curriculum of the basic cycle. It includes a core of behaviour, knowledge, values and experiences to enable the individual to:

develop his individual potentialities to the full;

actively participate in society through continued study or introduction to the world of work and to the world of culture;

be a productive, effective and happy citizen;

continue his life-long education;

develop a creative personality and critical mind so that he might, with understanding in co-operation with others, contribute to the further development of a good human society for himself, his family and all other people of the world;

achieve physical well-being and health.

23. What is studied in the basic cycle is rooted, in the first instance, in local experience. A person learns his world at first hand and gains in understanding by giving expression to his thought and feelings. The materials or opportunities for basic study lie at hand. In language the basic cycle involves experience of good clear speach and opportunities for the expression of the person's thoughts are a necessary beginning, to be followed in most cultures by reading and writing of the mother tongue if this is a written language. Where it is not, oral work in a second language followed by reading and writing in that tongue may be basic.

24. Mathematical thinking involves counting, measuring of distance, capacity, time, etc., and work on sets, averages, percentages, etc., all based on the person's own experience.

25. Scientific work should similarly be based on first-hand experiment and observation: the practical study of local plants, insects and animals and of the human body; of the soil, weather, water and air.

26. Aesthetics includes a variety of forms of non-verbal expression. Some aesthetic subjects (such as Western music) have a language: others call for appreciation as well as for the person's own efforts at expression.

27. Some understanding of ethics can be gained by the experience of reflecting upon what life (or school, or the village or town) offers: of discussing these opportunities; of making conscious choices between them and of accepting responsibility for the consequences.

28. Persons in the basic cycle need to recognize that the outcome for them of the basic cycle is largely in their own hands: that their teachers are resources with whom to plan their progress.

V. CONTENT, PRE-REQUISITES AND DURATION

A. The content of the basic cycle of education

29. The content of the basic cycle of education raises a number of related problems.

30. One has to do with the definition of a content that would be common to various countries with widely differing conditions. There is little chance that any meeting could achieve that and in any case it is for each country to translate the aims of the basic cycle of education into content in the light of its own requirements and conditions.

31. Another group of problems concerns methodology. Before asking oneself whether there can be common content for all those in the basic education cycle in a particular country, one must first ask whether there should be a common content. Another question is whether one should aim at defining the common content of the basic cycle of education in terms other than those of desirable behaviours and outcomes. If this were the case the only problem would be to translate aims into desirable behaviours, outcomes, skills and competencies.

32. Although a number of participants were of the opinion that the content could not be defined specifically, some insisted that a common content was most desirable and indicated certain conditions which would make it possible to have such a common content.

33. One condition is that the cycle be short. It is easier to have a common core for a short cycle than for a long one. Diversification and choice can be provided at a later stage. Another condition appears to be individualized learning which is necessary for the successful development of the basic cycle of education considering the different starting levels and rates of progress. However individualized learning requires special materials and teachers adequately trained to practice it.

34. The conflict between those who do not believe in the possibility of a common content and those in favour of it appears to be eased by the definition which can be given of a content. There is complete agreement that the function of a basic cycle of education is not to transmit knowledge in the traditional way but to prepare the individual for life and for becoming a re-

sponsible citizen. This implies the full development of potentialities and the well-rounded development of personality and ability to integrate in the social community where he lives. It also calls for the adequate acquisition of skills for worthwhile employment and the ability to participate actively in society and to challenge and transform it.

35. The development of desirable attitudes, fostering creativity, in an education which is combined with culture then appears necessary. Initiation to the world of work, life experience, out-of-school activities of all kinds, cultural activities of various types including the modern sicentific and technological understanding of the world, are essential components for such an educational content. It is clear, for instance, that technology - not only as a subject of practical value but also as an educational experience which involves abstract processes capable of transfer to other fields - may play a formative rôle, as can sport. It also appears that initiation to the world of work can be useful not only from a vocational point of view but for better understanding of school and society. It seems desirable for subjects to be grouped according to the kinds of competence to be achieved or in an interdisciplinary manner to reflect the complexity of real-life situations.

36. Emphasis should be placed not so much on the whole range of specific subjects as on those which develop the ability to learn, essential in the perspective of life-long education. For instance, such subjects as can be described as languages - verbal, mathematical, plastic and dynamic or physical - are of particular value. It is also recognized that certain new subjects and approaches, such as modern mathematics, are less important

as disciplines than from the point of view of the new type of relationship they create between the teacher and the student.

37. Bearing these considerations in mind it seems that some kind of agreement can be reached on a balanced content of traditional and new elements which should be covered by the basic cycle of education to meet the requirements of the national community and to promote international understanding. Such contents should aim at achieving greater democratization and equality of opportunity in the perspective of life-long education, and place considerable emphasis on humanistic and cultural values. It should develop communication skills starting with literacy and numeracy. It should provide the tools of verbal communication in the mother tongue and, where required, in other languages.

38. Content should introduce the learner to the world of science and technology, and lay the foundation for the scientific understanding of the world, not only in a theoretical manner but through practical application. It should initiate to the world of work, relate the individual to the community, and enhance the notion of social service. It should develop aesthetic appreciation and promote cultural and ethical values. The basic cycle should educate through and for decision-making and responsibility and develop the altruistic instinct which is inherent in the child.

B. Pre-requisites for a basic cycle of education

39. Two kinds of considerations must be discussed in this

connexion. First the establishment of a basic cycle of education requires that to discharge its function certain provisions should be made and certain conditions should be met. Secondly, the establishment of a basic cycle of education represents a policy option which has implications for the rest of the system.

40. The kind of education implied by the concept of a basic cycle, identified with specific aims and largely concerned with the creation of new attitudes, relies primarily on the teacher. However innovatively conceived, the basic cycle cannot be implemented without teachers who fully understand its aims and philosophy of education. Not only does it entail a quantitative expansion of the number of appropriately trained teachers, but also a new type of training which requires on behalf of the teachers the same kind of competencies which he or she seeks to develop in students.

41. Teachers should be prepared to practice team work and to use an interdisciplinary approach; to be aware of the psychological development and characteristics of the students and to establish a new type of relationship with them; to use flexible methods and with the students to evaluate student progress and the suitability and effectiveness of the learning programmes. The variety of educational problems encountered in the basic cycle of education requires different types of teachers capable of new kinds of interactions with students leading to guided individual learning.

42. Teachers therefore appear an essential element to take into account in planning the programme of the basic cycle of edu-

cation, either formal or non-formal. Such planning is itself an essential prerequisite for success.

43. Another requirement is the optimum use of material resources such as buildings and equipment and technical means available within the educational system and the community.

44. The development of new materials required for the basic cycle of education is essential and teachers should be prepared to take part in the production and evaluation of such materials.

45. The full use of human resources also appears necessary. It entails not only enlisting those who can play an educational rôle and the co-ordinating of all educational activities, but also actively involving the community and students in defining the purpose and functions of the basic cycle of education, in the light of its requirements and aspirations.

46. In addition to the need for continuous evaluation already mentioned, there is a need for an adequate programme of action research, including research in the fields of psychology and sociology testing, and experimentation in relation to the aims of the basic cycle of education and of its educational objectives. This scientific approach must redound to the benefit of the individuals for whom the basic cycle of education is designed.

47. Maximum flexibility should ensure that any individual can continue or complete the cycle at any age. The needs of deprived and handicapped groups should be given special attention.

48. In addition to all these requirements for the proper functioning of the basic cycle the implications of the concept for the whole system of education must be taken into account. Whereas in the more developed countries the notion of a basic cycle of education often coincides with that of compulsory schooling or in certain cases may mean a reduction of the duration of primary, plus junior or secondary education, in most of the developing countries, it tends to lengthen the duration of educational provision. It therefore requires policy choices which in all cases demand the best possible deployment of financial and physical resources and which may lead to difficult decisions. The following are some of the questions which arise in this respect.

What immediate action can be taken to implement a basic cycle of education for all?

If resources cannot permit the full cycle to be made available universally, should it be shortened so that all may benefit to an extent?

When there is a shortage of national resources how can the basic cycle be implemented using non-formal and part-time educational facilities?

What means should be taken so that the basic cycle of education can help those countries which have a problem of unemployed school-leavers to absorb in their economy the products of education?

49. Therefore, the establishment of a basic cycle of education may well require the setting up of non-formal and part-time education programmes at the same level, or at a higher level both for general education or for pre-vocational and vocational education, and training for those not having received adequate

schooling as well as for all groups of men and women suffering from handicaps and disadvantages.

50. The place of the basic cycle of education should therefore be defined within the whole education system and the complementary components which its existence may require should be identified in its perspective.

C. Duration

51. While a number of experiments in the organization of a basic cycle of education have a duration of nine or ten years, it is probably impossible to define the cycle in terms of a specific number of years. Cycles vary considerably according to national situations and the availability of resources. Many countries cannot hope to provide a universal cycle of nine to ten years at this time. As indicated above, the basic cycle of studies should be defined in terms of its ability to achieve certain aims, to develop certain competencies, values, behaviours and to provide certain skills.

52. It has already been observed that the basic cycle of education is not a mere addition of a certain number of school years to primary education of the formal type. By new approaches and methods, it is hoped to improve the efficiency of the education provided and therefore reduce the time required to attain a given educational objective. The efficiency of a basic cycle of education is also to a large extent associated with the practice of individualized learning and therefore with the ability of each student to proceed at his or her own pace.

53. Finally, if one assumes that the basic cycle of education may be concerned with the education of adults and youth as well as with that of children, one should take into account the fact that the speed of learning and the acquisition of skills and competencies varies considerably with the age of the learner. It is obvious that adults with social, working or family experience do not need to be introduced to certain concepts or to acquire skills which they already command. A greater degree of motivation, which is to be found with adults, can accelerate their progress. Thus there can be no fixed duration for the basic cycle of education even less in view of the varying nature of its content from country to country. Conversely one can assume that one of the characteristics of the basic cycle of education is to aim at improving the efficiency of the educational process.

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

54. The present report does not claim to have fully explored all the possibilities, implications and problems which the basic cycle of education might entail. It is hoped that it may contribute to stimulate further discussion and study among the international community of educators and policy-makers.

Topics which require further investigation could well be:

the rôle of pre-school education in relation to the basic cycle of education;

teacher preparation in view of new approaches to the educational process;

the place of non-formal and part-time education programmes within the basic cycle;

community involvement in the basic cycle;

the development of materials relevant to the basic cycle at various age levels;

suitable buildings for the basic cycle of education;

implications of the basic cycle of education for the educational systems as a whole.

55. There are many other issues which could warrant reflection and research. This report therefore should be viewed as a starting point for further developments concerning the basic cycle of education.

APPENDIX D

TOWARDS LIFELONG EDUCATION: SOME NEW DEVELOPMENTS MENTIONED IN THE REPORT

The purpose of this appendix is to list some of the new developments and new approaches which were mentioned in the seminar and which contribute towards the evolution of systems of education influenced by the master concept of lifelong education. Examples cited are listed under various headings and range from very large policy commitments undertaken by governments to smaller scale changes towards a greater measure of integration, more flexibility or a wider knowledge of the context of lifelong education.

Examples have only been included when they reflect past or present policy or practice. Many new plans are under discussion and have been mentioned in the report. These are not included in the list. Also omitted are the many valuable examples of diffusion activities instanced at the seminar.

No attempt has been made to provide detailed information concerning any of these developments. This list is merely intended as a starting point for readers who may wish to enquire further.

Most of the examples cited were drawn from experience in countries represented at the seminar and are indicated with a cross^x. But in some cases valuable examples were given from other systems by seminar members and these too are included in the listing.

1. NEW NATIONAL POLICIES INFLUENCED BY THE CONCEPT OF LIFE-LONG EDUCATION

(i) **Indonesia**[x]

The concept of lifelong education has been taken as a master concept in reorganising and reforming the Indonesian educational system and this is reflected in both the first and second five year development plans (1969-73 and 1974-78). Political decisions towards this end have been made within the presidential decree 34/1972 and the general guideline no. 15/74.

(ii) **Algeria**[x]

From the launching of the first four year plan (1970-73) the idea of lifelong education has gained increasing power as a master concept guiding educational policies. It is closely in tune with the new socialist philosophies of the government. Already a comprehensive system of out-of-school training for adults and youth has been created offering a variety of graded opportunities parallel to and supplementary to the existing school system. Already decentralisation in control of education is planned together with progressive integration of current school and out-of-school programmes. (One aspect of the reform, the Institutes of Technology, is described in the *International Review of Education* 20 (1974), no. 4. pp. 521-524).

(iii) **Tanzania**

Following the publication of the Arusha declaration and President Nyerere's pamphlet "Education for Self Reliance" in 1967, government education policy has firmly stressed the concepts of horizontal and vertical integration: the links between all forms of education and between the school and the community. This is reflected in education plans e.g. Second Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development 1969-74 and in curricula for formal and non-formal education. (See also Foster, P. & Sheffield, J.R. *Education and Rural Development*. pp. 261-277.

(IV) Peru

The Peruvian General Law on Education of 1972 provides for a radical reform of the aims and organisation of the national education system towards policies influenced by the master concept of lifelong education. Article 26 of the Law, Decree 19326 enacts that "The State will develop a policy of lifelong education ..." and a new structure of education into three levels, pre-primary, basic and higher, reflects this policy. (Described in *International Review of Education* 20 (1974), no. 4. pp. 532-537).

2. NEW AGENCIES TO COORDINATE AND ARTICULATE EDUCATIONAL EFFORT

(I) Algeria[x]

The Centre National d'Enseignement Généralisé (C.N.E.G.) coordinates efforts to provide educational opportunities through correspondence, radio and television. It bridges both the formal and non-formal sector, conducts research as to needs and demand, prepares materials and disperses them for a wide variety of purposes, for example: enriching school programmes, providing re-education and training for those who have dropped out of the system and retraining teachers of various types and grades.

(ii) Indonesia[x]

The Office of Educational Development, Ministry of Education and Culture has general responsibility for coordinating and undertaking research and evaluation, coordinating pilot projects, developing long, medium and short term educational plans. In the development phase it coordinates both formal and non-formal education and is responsible for preparing curricula for both. Currently it is also seeking means to coordinate other informal educational activities carried out by other ministries.

(iii) Kenya[x]

A Board of Adult Education is set up under the Ministry of Cooperatives and Social Services to coordinate all national efforts by various agencies. (Cited in Coombs, P. H. *New Paths to Learning*, p. 46.)

(iv) Uganda[x]

The National Curriculum Development Centre in Kampala has been set up to coordinate all curriculum development projects in both formal and non-formal education. It coordinates agencies which hitherto sometimes lacked sufficient communication with each other: the Ministry of Education, the University and other educational institutions, the East African Examination Council and other government ministries responsible for different kinds of educational programmes. The composition of the governing board of the centre reflects these interests.

(V) The role played by universities and institutes of Education, such as the Mauritius Institute of Education, as coordinating bodies was also stressed.

3. TOWARDS INTEGRATION OF EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES IN SCHOOL

(I) Cameroon[x]

Two Institutes of Rural Applied Pedagogy (Instituts de Pèdagogie Appliquèe à Vocation Rurale) have been opened one of which is in Yaounde and the other in Buea. These, together with the National Institute of Education in Yaounde, are contributing towards reshaping curricula and teacher training towards rural community needs. (See Lallez, R. *An Experiment in the Ruralisation of Education: IPAR and the Cameroonian Reform;* also report of seminar: "The Reform of Primary Education in Cameroon", March 1973. Yaounde: Ministry of National Education.)

(II) Uganda[x]

The Namutamba Rural Education Project is based on a teachers college and involves sixteen primary schools near the town of Mityana fifty miles from Kampala. The project aims to provide a more relevant curricula for rural children, to strengthen working links between school and community and to establish the school as a centre for community education. A film on the project has been produced by the film unit Uganda Ministry of Information. (Also described in the seminar report *Work-oriented Education in Africa.* Bonn: German Foundation for International Development, 1972.)

(III) Ghana[x]

Continuation schools have been established to give a vocational and practical bias to the elementary school curriculum so that pupils can acquire skills which will prepare them for self-employment when necessary.

(IV) Kenya[x]

Various forms of education and training for school leavers exist throughout African countries with the common aim of transforming them into "job makers" rather than "job seekers". To this end village polytechnics aim to train youth in rural areas to acquire skills to create jobs and meet changes throughout their lifetimes. Often local craftsmen are used as part-time instructors. The introduction of industrial education at primary level now being developed at the Kenya Institute of Education lays a foundation for these skills. (See Foster, P. & Sheffield, J. R. *Education and Rural Development* . pp. 283-301.)

(V) Pakistan[x]

As part of an Integrated Rural Development Programme aimed at improving the quality of life together with the social and economic status of the rural population, centres (Marakaz) have been set up. These serve youth and adults alike and also serve as listening stations for radio programmes.

(VI) Tanzania[x]

Ujaama schools in Ujaama villages are built to serve the whole community. President Nyerere believes, "... that every school should also be a farm; that the school community should consist of people who are both teachers and farmers, and pupils and farmers". (*Education for Self Reliance.*) See also Houghton, H. & Tregear, P. *Community Schools in Developing Countries* . A recent film "Community Schools in Tanzania" has been issued by UNICEF in cooperation with the Government of Tanzania.

4. ALTERNATIVE EDUCATIONAL PATTERNS - INSTANCES OF FLEXIBILITY

(i) Iraq^x

Shortened forms of primary education (3 years) are being introduced to provide basic education for children between 10 and 15 who have missed schooling. Special centres are planned for girls of 12 to 14 to teach literacy, numeracy and some vocational education part time over a two year period.

(ii) Saudi Arabia^x

Ungraded elementary schools have been introduced to counter the problem of drop outs and so enable the children to proceed in their studies according to the pace of the individual child. The children learn lessons in units and move on according to how effectively they have completed each unit.

(iii) Kuwait^x

Functional education centres have been set up serving different groups of learners of different ages but with the common purpose of developing skills on the work they do and the life they lead. These centres also undertake teaching of practical numeracy, practical science and citizenship.

(IV) Brazil

A growing variety of patterns and alternative paths to achieve basic education are being offered through the adult education movement (MOBRAL) in conjunction with the educational broadcasting service (MINERVA) and supplementary services provided at state level. The children, youth or adults are enabled through a variety of means, full or part time, to reach standards recognised as enabling them to go on learning formally or informally.

(V) Note also increasing provision of varied opportunities for recurrent education provided for adults as instanced in the list provided by Zambia[x] (pp.   ). A similar list for Kenya[x] is included in Coombs, P.H. *New Paths to Learning*, pp. 103-106.

5. USE OF MASS MEDIA

(I) Ivory Coast[x]

Parallel with the use of educational television for all children in the basic cycle, the para-tele teaching is organised. This involves correspondence education in addition to television and serves to reeducate and reanimate those who in the conventional terminology would have been classed as "failures" or "drop outs".

(II) **Pakistan**[x]

The new People's Open University at Islamabad will offer courses in general education aimed principally towards learners who have had about ten years formal schooling, but its programme will extend far wider. Courses in functional education for farmers, industrial workers and craftsmen are planned. A variety of media: radio, television and correspondence, will be employed and a variety of places used as study centres including educational institutions, the I.R.D.P. centres and other suitable places. Even illiterates are expected to profit from certain of the programmes.

(III) **Mauritius**[x]

In common with a number of other countries represented, Mauritius has recently begun to exploit further the potentialities of the mass media to enrich formal education and provide alternative paths to it. The Mauritius College of the Air was established in 1971 as part of the International Extension College, has grown rapidly and is now fully administered by the government. It offers courses at economy level, programmes for teachers together with vocational courses of various kinds.

(IV) **Dominican Republic**

Radio Santa Maria is based in La Vega. It makes use of multi-media techniques (radio, work-sheets and face-to-face contact with locally recruited monitor teachers) for reaching rural audiences throughout the country. It is non-governmental and church-linked, making considerable use of local volunteers. Originally initiated in 1964 as a four grade functional literacy course it was expanded in 1973 to an eight grade course with formal school equivalence. (Described in Unesco Institute of Education *News-Letter* No. 3, January 1975, and to be subject of an Institute case study.)

(V) Saudi Arabia[x]

A children's magazine is produced to provide supplementary informal educational material for children and youth. Similar projects exist in other countries represented including Zambia[x] where the Commission for Technical Education and Vocational Training produces the children's magazine *Orbit*.

6. TOWARDS A MORE FLEXIBLE SYSTEM OF EVALUATION

(I) Ghana[x]

Tests of reading ability are being developed through the Curriculum Research and Development Division in Accra. Plans exist to launch a programme for developing tests of numeracy. These instruments are intended for use by teachers to determine levels of individual achievement. They thus promote awareness of the fact that individuals progress at different speeds. Such tests may be used for learners of different ages and in a variety of educational situations.

(II) Other instances were cited where the power of centralised examinations had been reduced (Indonesia), where systems of assessment had been modified (Tanzania) and where assessment by examination had been supplemented by use of individual records leading to increasingly flexible movement of learners between grades in the basic cycle.

7. TEACHER EDUCATION - SOME NEW APPROACHES

(i) Senegal[x]

Regional Teachers Colleges (Ecoles normales règionales) offer a four year course the last year of which is very strongly orientated towards practical teaching (more than half students' time is in the classroom). Emphasis throughout training is on knowledge and skills which contribute towards lifelong learning. A strong emphasis is placed on the role of the teacher in rural development and techniques for teaching both children and adults are imparted. Students spend a month helping with social or economic projects in local communities.

(ii) Kenya[x]

Teachers Advisory Centres are being set up throughout the country. They offer a base for in-service courses at local level, but also a centre where teachers can go, informally, and at times convenient to themselves to seek advice, discuss problems or make themselves aware of new materials available in their fields.

(iii) Nigeria

The Institute of Education Ahmadu Bello University operates new flexible programmes of sandwich courses for initial training of teachers and teacher educators, at undergraduate and postgraduate level. These are largely for mature men and women already teaching in the system often without any professional qualification. They attend training during holiday time and are supervised during their regular teaching.

(IV) Lebanon, Jordan

A number of countries in the Middle East have operated at various times, systems of initial training of teachers through a combination of radio, correspondence and face-to-face teaching. In this way teachers can obtain training in-service and at the same time develop their abilities for further self-improvement. The prototype for these schemes, now very widespread, was launched by the UNRWA/UNESCO Institute of Education in Beirut in 1964. (See Harrison, K. "In-Service Teacher Training by UNRWA/UNESCO in Lebanon, Gaza, Syria and Jordan". *Teacher Education in New Countries* 8, no. 2, pp. 124-133.

(V) Other examples or planned in-service education programmes often using a variety of media, were instanced e.g. from Afghanistan^{x}, Zambia^{x}, Uganda^{x}.

8. SOME RESEARCH PROGRAMEES AND PROJECTS

(I) At the Unesco institute for Education, Hamburg

Since 1972 the UIE has devoted its research activities to lifelong education and school learning. Various conceptual and operational studies have been completed, or are in progress. These include:

(1) An exploratory study on the concept characteristics of lifelong education (see Appendix A) and their implications for school curriculum.

(2) An inter-disciplinary study on the foundations of lifelong education incorporating psychology, sociology, philosophy, anthropology, ecology, history and economics.

(3) Two studies on evaluation: one aimed at developing criteria, procedures and instruments for evaluating existing curricula in collaboration with research institutions in Japan, Romania and Sweden; the other on developing a framework for pupil evaluation in the perspective of lifelong education.

(4) A study on the initial preparation of teachers aimed at the development of theoretical and practical components of college curricula and undertaken in cooperation with the institutions from Australia, Federal Republic of Germany, Hungary, India and Singapore.

(5) Two series of case-studies: one analysing national reforms (e.g. Peru) and the other evaluating specific educational practices (e.g. Radio Santa Maria, Dominican Republic).

(ii) African Bureau of Educational Sciences

This body was founded at the last congress of the I.A.A.E.R. in Paris in September 1973. It is based on the National University of Zaire, Kisangani. It aims to coordinate and diffuse educational research throughout Africa and as such has a powerful role to play in the essential task of laying a foundation of sound knowledge on which to base new approaches and structures.

(iii) In South East Asia (INNOTECH)

The Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology was given the responsibility by SEAMEO to seek solutions to the problem of how, in the face of decisions to move rapidly towards mass primary education, alternative strategies could be found which provide quality primary education at significantly reduced per-pupil costs.

Approaches being explored include (i) the deriving of "life skills" objectives so that the curriculum can be pared down to what is most relevant and essential, (ii) Project IMPACT, designed to minimise the use of formal classrooms and modify the teacher's role towards managing the self-instruction of a large number of children with the assistance of community members, parents and peer tutors. Indonesia* cooperated fully in Project IMPACT.

APPENDIX C

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